3 1761 11726301 2

11-008

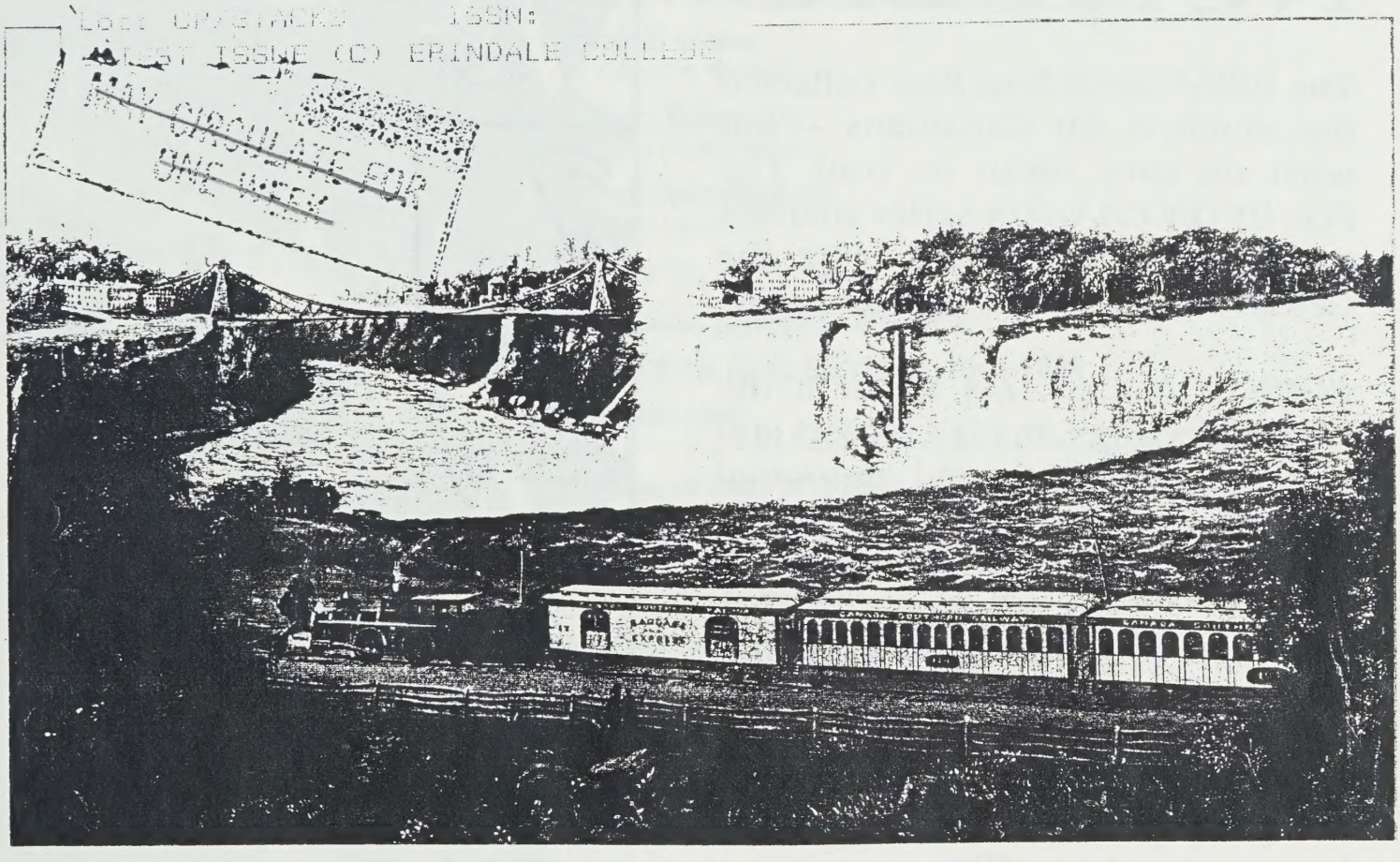
GOVT


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2023 with funding from
University of Toronto

https://archive.org/details/31761117263012

SOCIAL TRENDS

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS
HN 101 C3
Vol:
Iss: 16
Lost Originals
ISSN:
First Issue (C) Erindale College



HOUSEHOLD PROPERTY CRIME ☐ HOUSING ☐ INNER CITY TRANSITION ☐ FARM PROFILE

1990

THE NEWS BEHIND THE NUMBERS

The 1986 Census Data Base collected the numbers on Canadians – but what do they mean to you? The *FOCUS ON CANADA* Series analyses the issues that emerged from the Census results, in everyday language.

FOCUS ON CANADA looks at the issues affecting Canada's seniors and its youth, its ethnic and aboriginal communities; its regions in the far north and the industrial south.

And there's much more to keep you informed – and enlightened. Each publication is bilingual, and costs $10. Order the full set of 16 for a comprehensive reference tool for home, school or office.



To order, write to Publications Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call toll-free.

Please make cheques or money orders payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications.

Contact a Regional Reference Centre near you for further information.

1-800-267-6677 Call Toll-Free





Cover: ***The Canada Southern Railway at Niagara*** (1870 ?) oil on canvas, 58.4 x 101.6 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Robert Whale (1805-1887) studied painting in England and worked there as an artist before immigrating to Canada in 1852. Painting for a living at a time when almost no market for art existed, Mr. Whale responded to his clients' interests and painted portraits, Indians, landscapes and wilderness themes, mainly in oils. Then, when railways became a symbol of the future in North America, he painted a group of "portraits" of trains.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

No. 16 - SPRING 1990

CONTENTS

Home Ownership 2
by Janet Che-Alford

Shelter Costs 6
by Tom Bird

Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form 11
by Mary Anne Burke

Household Property Crime 15
by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

Household Chores 18
by Katherine Marshall

The Farm Community 20
by Judie McSkimmings

Regional Unemployment 24
by David Gower

The Inner City in Transition 27

1986 Census Highlights: Winnipeg 31

Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989 34

Social Indicators 35

1989 Annual Index of Articles — Winter Issue, Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Ove Design Group Inc.
Illustrations and Photos	Photo Centre, SSC, Jean Pragen/Masterfile
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	V. Beaulieu, J. Frederick, K. Kennedy, M. Lisciotto, H. Moses, E. Praught, C. Prévost, C. Richard, M. Saint-Laurent, E. Scott, C. Shea

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a yea by the Minister of Regional Industrial Expansion. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1990, all rights reserved. First class postag Canada paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $32 a year in Canada, $36 ($28 U.S.) elsewhere. Single issu $8 each in Canada, $9 ($7 U.S.) elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistic Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six week for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor **Canadian Social Trends**, 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible fc unsolicited materials. Extracts from this publication may be reproduced for individual use without permission provided the sourc is fully acknowledged. However, reproduction of this publication in whole or in part for purposes of resale or redistribution require written permission from the Programs and Publishing Products Group, Acting Permissions Officer, Crown Copyright Administration Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Canada, K1A 0S9. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the neares Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-569

HOME OWNERSHIP

by Janet Che-Alford



Owning a home has long been a dream of Canadians. And for the majority of Canadian households, that dream is a reality.

In 1986, almost 5.6 million residential dwellings, 62% of the total, were owner-occupied. While this level of ownership was down from 66% in 1961, all the decline had taken place by the mid-1970s. Since 1976, the rate of homeownership has not changed appreciably.

In recent years, however, there has been an increase in the proportion of mortgage-free homes. By 1986, 48% of owner-occupied dwellings did not have a mortgage, up from 42% in 1981.

Ownership highest in east

Provincial homeownership rates vary considerably, with rates highest in the Atlantic region and lowest in Quebec.

Newfoundland has the largest proportion of owner-occupied residential dwellings of any province. In 1986, 80% of all dwellings in Newfoundland were owner-occupied. Rates were also well above average in New Brunswick (74%), Prince Edward Island (73%), and Nova Scotia (72%).

By contrast, 63% of Ontario homes were owner-occupied, while rates in the Western provinces ranged from 60% in Alberta to 68% in Saskatchewan. Quebec residents were least likely to be homeowners; in 1986, just over half (54%) the dwellings in that province were owner-occupied.

Urban/rural

Rural residents are much more likely than city-dwellers to be homeowners. In 1986, 83% of rural homes were owner-occupied, compared with 57% in urban areas.

Moreover, as the size of an urban area increases, homeownership rates decline. In urban areas with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants, 69% of homes were owner-occupied, but in cities of 500,000 or more, where high land prices make housing less affordable, the figure was just 52%.

Levels of ownership also vary widely in different Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs), with rates generally higher in smaller cities. For example, in 1986, just two CMAs, St. Catharines-Niagara and Oshawa, had homeownership rates of at least 70%. Rates were also relatively high in St. John's, Hamilton, Windsor, Thunder Bay, and Regina. Of these seven cities, only Hamilton and St. Catharines-Niagara rank among the ten largest CMAs in Canada.

By contrast, fewer than 60% of homes were owner-occupied in most of the large CMAs. In Toronto, Canada's largest CMA, only 58% of homes were owner-occupied, while Montreal, which ranked second in population, had the lowest ownership rate of all CMAs: just 45%. At the same time, 53% of homes in Quebec City, 54% in Ottawa-Hull, 56% in Vancouver, 57% in Edmonton, and 58% in Calgary were owned by their occupants.

Types of homes owned

Single detached homes are the most common residential dwellings in Canada, accounting for 57% of all housing stock. They are also the type of dwelling most likely to be owned.

In 1986, 90% of all single detached houses were owner-occupied. The only other dwellings with a comparable ownership rate were mobile homes, 85% of which were owned.

By contrast, only about one-quarter (24%) of all multiple-unit dwellings were owner-occupied in 1986. This included structures such as row/townhouses, 28% of which were owner-occupied, and apartments in highrise buildings of five or more storeys, 11% of which were owned by their occupants.

Apartment ownership rates, however, have increased more rapidly in recent years than those of any other type of dwelling. From 1981 to 1986, the percentage of apartments that were owned went from 8% to 11%. During the same period, ownership rates of single detached homes rose by just half a percentage point, while the corresponding increase for other multiple-unit dwellings was 1.5 percentage points. On the other hand, the proportion of owner-occupied mobile homes declined by almost two percentage points.

More condominiums

The relatively rapid increase in the share of apartments that are owned is largely attributable to growth in the popularity of condominiums. These are residential complexes in which dwellings are owned individually, while the land is held in joint ownership with others. By 1986, close to 235,000 households were in dwellings with condominium status, a 37% increase from 1981.

Certain types of owner-occupied dwellings, however, are much more likely than others to be condominiums. Virtually all owner-occupied apartments in highrise buildings of five or more storeys had condominium status. The corresponding figure was 59% for owner-occupied row/townhouses, and 21% for apartments in lowrise buildings. By contrast, the proportion of single detached homes with condominium status was less than one-quarter of one percent.

Dwelling values vary

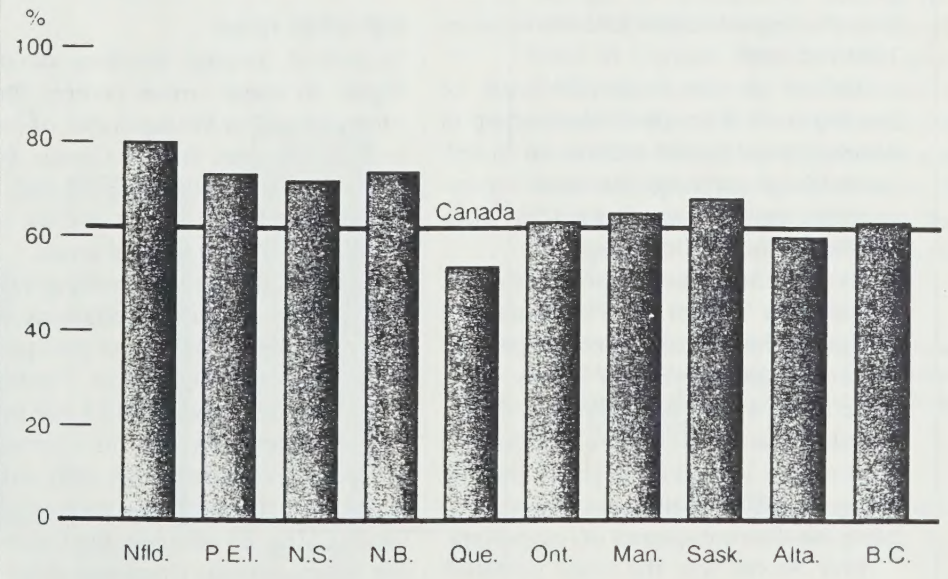
The average value of owned dwellings in Canada, that is, the amount expected by the owner if the dwelling were to be sold, was $84,800 in 1986. However, provincial differences were considerable. The highest average value was $104,100 in Ontario, followed by $98,900 in British Columbia, and $84,900 in Alberta. Average values in Nova Scotia, Quebec, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan ranged between $60,400 and $68,600. The lowest average value of owned dwellings was in Newfoundland ($47,400), with values in New Brunswick ($50,000) and Prince Edward Island ($52,100) also relatively low.

Values drop

When inflation is taken into account, dwelling values actually declined in the first half of the 1980s. At the national level, the average value (in 1986 dollars) of

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of owner-occupied homes, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.



owner-occupied homes fell 14% between 1981 and 1986.

Declines in the reported value of housing stock were particularly sharp in British Columbia and Alberta. In British Columbia, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings was down 42%, while in Alberta, the decline was 32%.

Decreases in most other provinces were considerably smaller. In Newfoundland and Saskatchewan, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings fell by 11%, while there were 2% declines in Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Quebec, and a 1% drop in Manitoba. The average value in Ontario scarcely changed, falling less than one-quarter of one percent.

Nova Scotia was the only province where the average dwelling value increased. Between 1981 and 1988, the real value of owner-occupied homes in this province rose 5%.

High urban values

In general, average dwelling values are higher in major urban centres than in other areas. The average value of owner-occupied homes for all Census Metropolitan Areas in 1986 was $103,200, compared with $60,100 in non-CMA urban areas and $65,800 in rural areas.

The overall average dwelling value in CMAs masks substantial variations among different cities. In 1986, the average value of homes was highest in Toronto at $142,300, followed by $127,300 in Vancouver. Average values in Ottawa-Hull ($116,800), Oshawa ($105,100), and Victoria ($103,500) were also above the level for all CMAs. By contrast, the CMAs with the lowest average dwelling values were Trois-Rivières ($55,100), Saint John ($56,800), Sudbury ($58,600), Sherbrooke ($59,400), and Chicoutimi-Jonquière ($60,300).

Apartments most expensive

Certain types of dwellings tend to be more costly than others. Owner-occupied units in apartment buildings of five or more storeys had the highest average value in 1986, at $101,700. This compared with $86,200 for row/townhouses and lowrises (under five storeys) and $85,500 for single detached houses. Mobile homes had the lowest value, averaging just $25,200.

The higher values of multiple-unit dwellings reflect the fact that they are typically located in urban areas. On the other hand, the relatively low value of single detached houses includes many less expensive rural homes.

Average value of owner-occupied homes in Census Metropolitan Areas, 1986

	$
Toronto	142,282
Vancouver	127,311
Ottawa-Hull	116,802
Oshawa	105,060
Victoria	103,466
Calgary	100,505
Kitchener	96,671
Hamilton	95,307
Halifax	91,584
Edmonton	87,225
Montreal	87,180
London	85,617
Thunder Bay	79,656
Winnipeg	77,844
Saskatoon	77,583
St.Catharines-Niagara	76,844
St.John's	75,284
Windsor	74,691
Regina	72,921
Quebec City	64,477
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	60,307
Sherbrooke	59,420
Sudbury	58,608
Saint John	56,810
Trois-Rivières	55,088
Total CMA	**103,171**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Who owns?

The likelihood of being a homeowner is related to a number of factors including age, sex, family status, income, and immigrant status.

Homeownership is most common among people aged 35-64. At ages 35-44, 70% of household maintainers were homeowners in 1986, while the proportions for those aged 45-54 and 55-64 were 75% and 74%, respectively.

Ownership rates drop off among older people, falling to 68% at ages 65-74, and to 57% for those aged 75 and over. Young people, however, were least likely to own homes. In 1986, just 16% of household maintainers aged 15-24 and 48% of those aged 25-34 were homeowners.

Moreover, from 1981 to 1986, homeownership rates of young household maintainers declined. The sharpest drop was among those aged 25-34, whose ownership rate fell four percentage points from 52% to 48%. Rates also decreased one or two percentage points among household maintainers younger than 25 and those aged 35-54. By contrast, between 1981 and 1986, homeownership rates of 65-74-year-old household maintainers increased two percentage points, while rates at ages 55-64 and at age 75 and over did not change.

Male household maintainers are much more likely than their female counterparts to be homeowners. Whereas 69% of all male household maintainers were homeowners in 1986, the proportion among women was just 42%.

Ownership is also related to the type of household. Husband-wife families were most likely to be homeowners, with an ownership rate of 75% in 1986. On the other hand, only a minority of lone-parent families (45%) were homeowners, and among female lone parents, the proportion was even lower (41%). One-person households, however, were least likely of all to be homeowners; just 34% of people living alone owned a home.

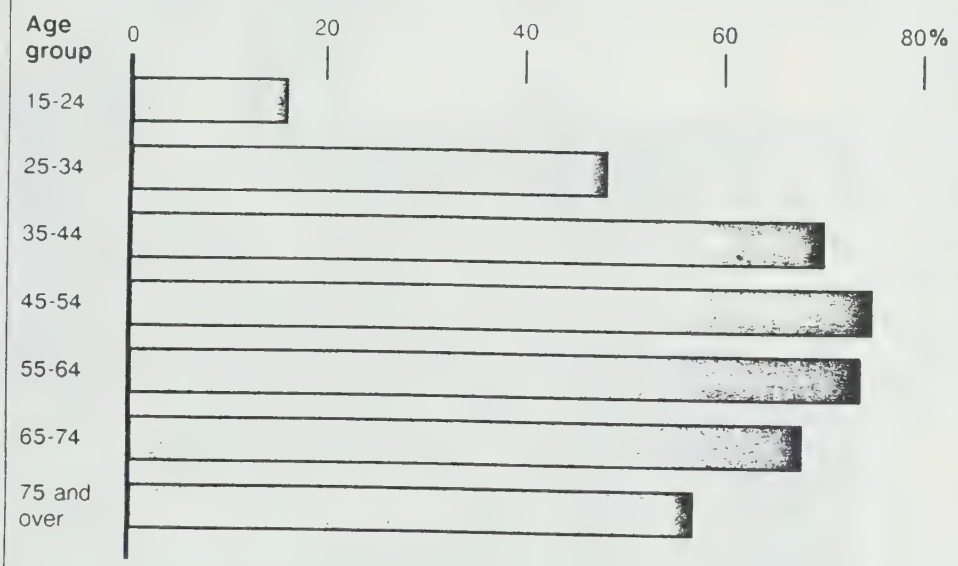
As might be expected, owning a home is strongly associated with income. The overwhelming majority (85%) of households with incomes of $50,000 or more were in owner-occupied dwellings. For households in the $35,000-$50,000 range, the ownership rate was 74%. By contrast, just over half (57%) of households with incomes of $15,000-$35,000 were homeowners, while only a minority (38%) of those in the less-than-$15,000 category owned a home.

Immigrants were more likely than non-immigrants to be homeowners. In 1986, 66% of immigrant household maintainers, compared with 60% of non-immigrants, were homeowners. As well, the percentage of immigrants owning homes increases with the length of time they have been in Canada. Almost three-quarters (74%) of immigrant maintainers who arrived before 1961 were homeowners, more than double the proportion among those who had immigrated since 1981. Nonetheless, even among these recent immigrants, 31% of household maintainers owned a home.

Janet Che-Alford *is Chief of the Family, Housing and Household Section with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN

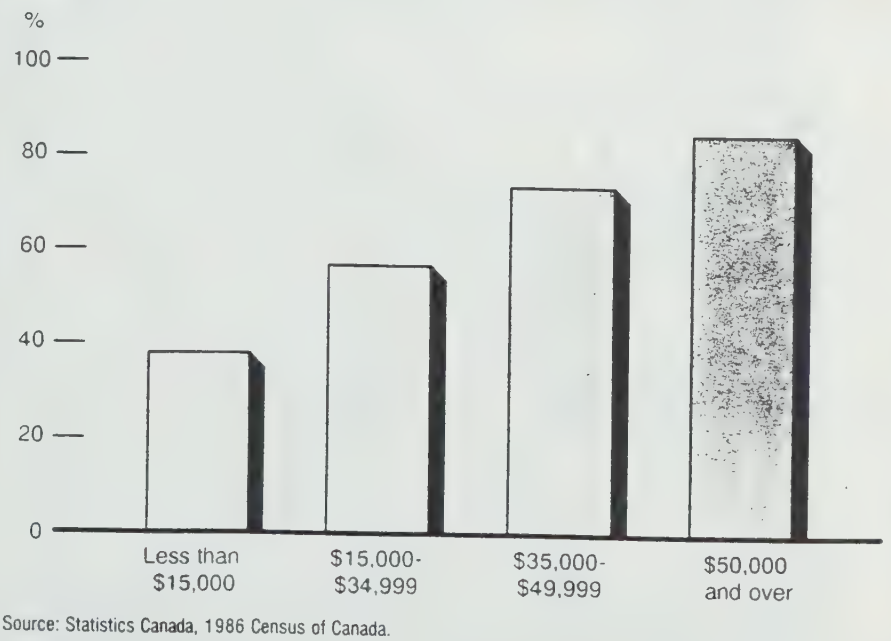
Home ownership rate, by age of household maintainer, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN

Home ownership rate, by household income, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

SHELTER COSTS

by Tom Bird



The cost of shelter is one of the major elements in the family budget of Canadians.[1] Monthly payments differ substantially for homeowners and renters, with homeowners, on average, paying more. But as a proportion of household income, tenants' shelter costs actually exceed those of people who own homes, either with or without a mortgage.

Housing costs, however, vary from one region to another. In particular, shelter tends to be most expensive in Western Canada and Ontario.

Owners and renters

In 1986, Canadian households spent an average of $460 a month on shelter. But costs varied considerably, depending on whether the dwelling was owned or rented.

Homeowners' costs averaged $478 a month in 1986. Payments were less than half that amount ($216) for the 48% of homeowners who had paid off their mortgage, while those with a mortgage had average monthly payments of $719. Tenants' monthly shelter costs averaged $430.

When inflation is taken into account, homeowners' average shelter costs actually declined in the first half of the 1980s, whereas those of renters increased. Real monthly payments for owners were 2% lower in 1986 than in 1981, while tenants' shelter costs were 10% higher.

Moreover, tenants spend a larger share of their income on shelter than do homeowners, even those still paying off a mortgage. Average monthly shelter costs for tenants in 1986 amounted to 22% of their household income. In comparison,

[1] Shelter costs include payments for utilities, municipal services, and depending on whether the dwelling was owned or rented, mortgages, property taxes, and rent.



homeowners spent an average of 14% of their income on housing: for those without a mortgage, the proportion was 7%; for those with a mortgage, it was 20%.

As well, in the first half of the 1980s, the share of tenants' income devoted to shelter costs increased, while it dropped for homeowners. In 1981, renters had spent 20% of their income on housing, compared with 15% for homeowners.

The discrepancy in the proportions of household income spent on shelter reflects the fact that tenants tend to have much lower incomes than do homeowners. In 1985, for instance, the average income of tenant households was $24,000, compared with $41,200 for homeowners.

Provincial homeownership costs vary

Monthly payments for homeowners vary considerably in different provinces. And while there was a decline in homeowners' real shelter costs at the national level in the early 1980s, this was because of a drop in just three provinces. The remaining provinces experienced small increases.

Average 1986 monthly shelter costs for homeowners were highest in Alberta ($573), followed by Ontario ($516), British Columbia ($484), and Quebec ($449). Elsewhere, homeowners' monthly costs varied from $422 in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan to less than $400 in each of the Atlantic provinces. At $315, shelter costs were lowest for Newfoundland homeowners.

The overall 2% decline between 1981 and 1986 in Canadian homeowners' inflation-adjusted housing costs was attributable to decreases in British Columbia (9%), Alberta (7%), and Quebec (5%). Average monthly payments rose in the other provinces, with increases of 1%-2% in Ontario, Newfoundland, New Brunswick and Manitoba, and 4%-5% in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan.

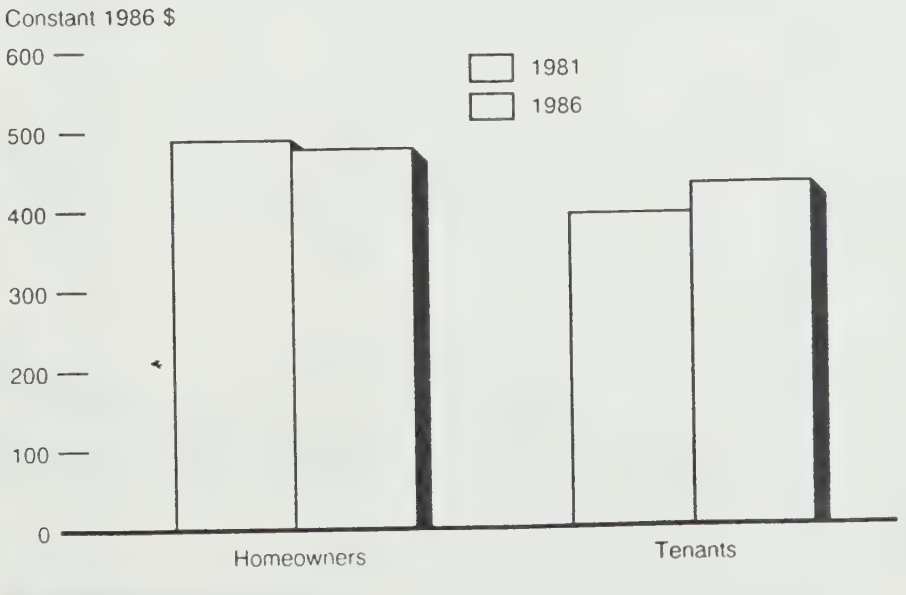
Average monthly shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, by province, 1986

	Owner	Tenant
	$	
Newfoundland	315	404
Prince Edward Island	365	410
Nova Scotia	396	418
New Brunswick	350	374
Quebec	449	399
Ontario	516	453
Manitoba	422	391
Saskatchewan	422	390
Alberta	573	462
British Columbia	484	460
Canada	**478**	**430**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Monthly shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

Narrow provincial gap in rents

Tenants' monthly shelter costs vary much less by province than do homeowners' payments. And unlike the trend for homeowners, tenants' costs in most provinces rose substantially during the early 1980s.

Renters in Alberta and British Columbia paid the highest average amounts in 1986: $462 and $460, respectively. Average payments were $453 in Ontario and $399 in Quebec. The lowest average monthly payment made by renters was $374 in New Brunswick. Thus, the provincial range in tenants' average shelter costs was just $88, compared with a range of $258 for homeowners.

From 1981 to 1986, after adjusting for inflation, monthly costs for tenants rose fastest in Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia (17%). Increases were almost as great (15%) in Newfoundland and Quebec. Average monthly costs also rose substantially for renters in Ontario (13%), New Brunswick (12%), and Saskatchewan and Manitoba (both 10%).

By contrast, in British Columbia, the increase in tenants' real monthly costs amounted to just 2%. Alberta, with a drop of 9%, was the only province where renters' costs were lower in 1986 than in 1981.

Pattern reversed

While in most provinces, homeowners' average monthly shelter costs exceeded those of tenants, the reverse was true in the Atlantic region. This is attributable to the high proportion of mortgage-free owners in that region: the percentage of homeowners without a mortgage ranged from 53% in New Brunswick to 68% in Newfoundland. On the other hand, in the rest of the country, the corresponding range was from 40% in Alberta to 54% in Saskatchewan.

High cost of city living

Average monthly payments for homeowners and tenants in Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) tend to be relatively high, although variations from city to city are substantial. For the most part, though, the larger the city, the higher the costs.

Homeowners in Calgary made the highest average monthly payments ($681) in 1986. Shelter costs for owners in Ottawa-Hull and Toronto were also over $600, while monthly payments in Edmonton, Vancouver, Halifax, and Oshawa were between $550 and $600. Costs in the remaining CMAs ranged from $407 in Trois-Rivières to $547 in Montreal.

In inflation-adjusted dollars, average monthly payments for homeowners declined in about three-quarters of all CMAs during the early 1980s. The largest decreases were in Quebec City and Sherbrooke (both 10%), Trois-Rivières (9%), Edmonton and Victoria (both 8%), and Vancouver and Sudbury (both 7%).

On the other hand, homeowners' shelter costs increased in Ottawa-Hull (8%), St. John's (7%), Halifax (4%), Winnipeg and Regina (both 3%), and Toronto and Oshawa (both 2%).

For tenant households in CMAs, average monthly shelter costs were lower than those paid by homeowners. However, in contrast to the decline of shelter costs for the majority of CMA homeowners, the inflation-adjusted cost of renting increased substantially in most CMAs between 1981 and 1986.

Toronto tenants had the highest monthly shelter costs in 1986, averaging $500. Costs in Vancouver ($493) were next highest, followed by Ottawa-Hull ($491), Calgary ($488), and Halifax ($481). By contrast, Montreal renters' average monthly shelter costs ($420) were less than the

Shelter costs of homeowners and tenants, by Census Metropolitan Areas, 1986

	Average monthly shelter cost		Percentage change since 1981		Percent of households paying 30% or more of income for shelter	
	Owner	Tenant	Owner	Tenant	Owner	Tenant
	1986 $		%		%	
St. John's	510	461	7	20	14.1	37.6
Halifax	572	481	4	17	14.9	36.8
Saint John	438	367	-5	5	13.1	39.2
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	458	396	-6	6	13.3	37.7
Quebec City	485	419	-10	14	12.4	36.8
Sherbrooke	449	383	-10	23	13.5	40.9
Trois-Rivières	407	361	-9	13	12.5	40.2
Montreal	547	420	-5	15	15.4	36.2
Ottawa-Hull	616	491	8	16	12.2	31.2
Oshawa	567	472	2	13	11.5	32.1
Toronto	611	500	2	11	14.1	30.6
Hamilton	509	413	-	12	11.7	33.6
St. Catharines-Niagara	429	387	-2	12	11.3	38.3
Kitchener	494	409	-1	13	10.9	29.8
London	479	411	-5	18	11.1	34.5
Windsor	454	397	-3	11	11.3	35.6
Sudbury	459	372	-7	9	11.7	35.2
Thunder Bay	436	413	-3	7	9.7	32.4
Winnipeg	473	410	3	-2	11.3	38.6
Regina	537	443	3	9	13.7	39.8
Saskatoon	523	390	-1	-3	13.8	42.2
Calgary	681	488	-5	-14	17.5	35.9
Edmonton	593	464	-8	-10	16.1	36.8
Vancouver	554	493	-7	3	16.2	44.7
Victoria	487	459	-8	4	16.2	47.6

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

national average ($430). The lowest average amounts, however, were paid by tenants in Trois-Rivières ($361) and Saint John ($367).

In most CMAs, tenants paid much higher housing costs in 1986 than in 1981. The largest increases, in inflation-adjusted dollars, were in Sherbrooke (23%) and St. John's (20%). Other CMAs with relatively large increases in monthly payments were London (18%), Halifax (17%), Ottawa-Hull (16%), and Montreal (15%). The increase in Toronto was 11%, and in Vancouver, 3%.

Declines in tenants' real shelter costs occurred in just four CMAs, all of them in Western Canada. Average monthly payments decreased in Calgary (14%), Edmonton (10%), Saskatoon (3%), and Winnipeg (2%).

Housing affordability

As a general rule, households spending 30% or more of their income on shelter have a potential affordability problem. Housing expenditures of this magnitude can substantially reduce the funds available for other necessities such as food, clothing, transportation, and health care.

In 1986, 22% of Canadian households spent 30% or more of their income on shelter. As would be expected, this proportion varied for owners and renters, as well as for households at different income levels.

Based on the 30% cut-off, potential affordability problems are much more common among tenant than owner households. Whereas 36% of tenant households spent 30% or more of their income on shelter in 1986, the proportion among homeowners was just 13%.

For owner households, however, a mortgage was an important factor in the share of income absorbed by shelter costs. Fully 20% of homeowners with a mortgage spent at least 30% of their income on housing in 1986, compared with just 5% of mortgage-free owners.

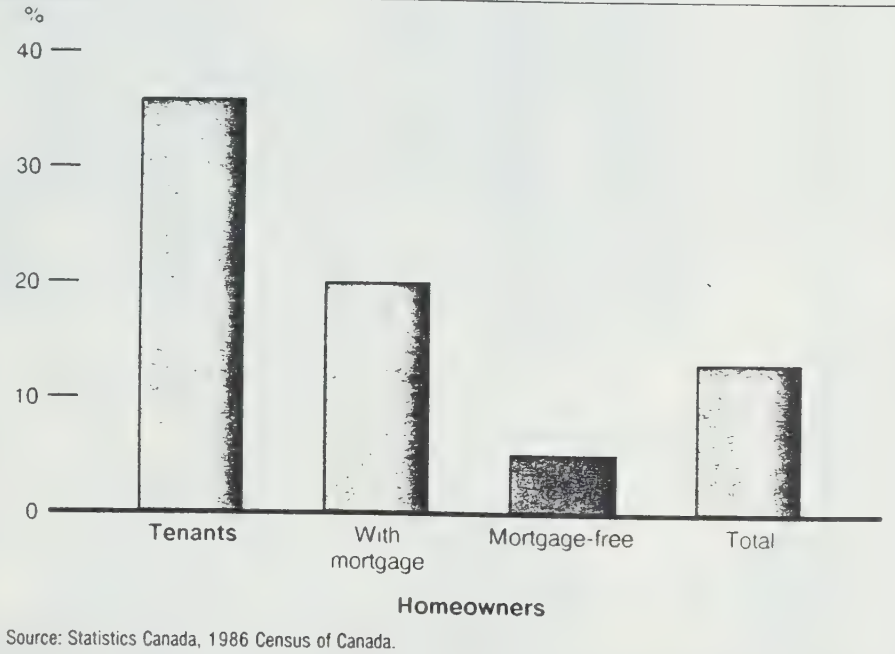
Generally, low-income households tend to have affordability problems, while at successively higher income levels, fewer households have difficulty meeting shelter costs. Regardless of whether they owned or rented their home, nine out of ten households with very low incomes (less than $5,000 in 1985) spent at least 30% of that income on shelter. On the other hand, only 1%-2% of owner and tenant households with incomes of $45,000 or more had potential affordability problems.

Among households with incomes less than $20,000, renters were more likely than owners to spend 30% or more of their income on shelter. For instance, in the $5,000-$9,999 category, the proportion was 76% for tenant households, compared with 45% for owner households. At the $15,000-$19,999 level, the corresponding figures were 33% and 22%.

By contrast, for households with incomes greater than $20,000, potential affordability problems were more common among owners than among renters. At the $20,000-$24,999 level, 20% of owner households, compared with 15% of tenant households, spent 30% or more of their income on shelter. Similarly, for households in the $30,000-$34,999 bracket, the figures were 11% for homeowners and 4% for tenants. The gap between renters and owners persisted in households with even higher incomes, although housing affordability problems are rare at this income level.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

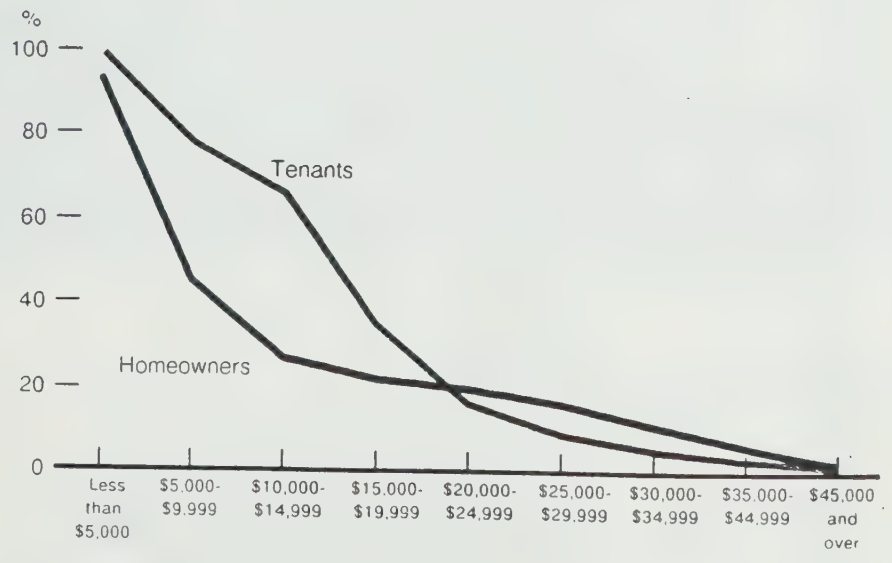
Percentage of households paying 30% or more of their income on shelter, by tenure, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of households paying 30% or more of their income on shelter, by household income and tenure, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Groups at risk

A number of groups whose incomes tend to be low also spend large shares of that income on shelter. Included among these groups are lone-parent families, young families, and one-person households. Housing affordability problems for these people are particularly severe if they are tenants in urban areas.

In 1986, 56% of female-headed lone-parent tenant families in CMAs paid 30% or more of their income on shelter, up from 52% in 1981. Male-headed lone-parent tenant families also experienced affordability problems, with 31% paying 30% or more of their income on shelter costs in 1986, a rise from 25% in 1981.

Among young families who were renting in CMAs, 72% with a household maintainer aged 15-19 and 46% with a household maintainer aged 20-24 had potential affordability problems. These proportions were higher than in 1981, when the figures had been 62% and 37%, respectively.

Similarly, 46% of CMA-dwellers who lived alone paid 30% or more of their income on rental costs in 1986, up from 41% in 1981.

Overall, more than a third (36%) of renters in CMAs paid at least 30% of their income on shelter in 1986. The percentage of tenant households with affordability problems ranged from 30% in Kitchener to 48% in Victoria. Moreover, the proportion of tenant households paying more than 30% of their income on shelter increased since 1981 in every CMA except Calgary.

By contrast, only 14% of owner households in CMAs were paying 30% or more of their income on shelter in 1986. The figure varied from a low of 10% in Thunder Bay to a high of 18% in Calgary. As well, since 1981, the proportion of owner households with potential affordability problems fell in all CMAs.

Tom Bird *is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

Take a look at our family snapshot...



You'll discover a focused portrait of the Canadian family in Statistics Canada's new publication, *The Family in Canada: Selected Highlights.*

Drawing from a variety of Statistics Canada data on the family, this publication focuses on stages of contemporary family life and the significant changes that have occurred in recent times.

Concise commentaries and more than 50 distinctive, colour charts present a clear image of the Canadian family by exploring such topics as:

- Marriage and Family Formation
- Raising Children
- The Workplace and Home
- Income, Assets and Expenditures
- Divorces/Remarriages
- Living Arrangements of Senior Citizens
- Widowhood

PRICE: $35.00 in Canada; $36.00 other countries

The Family In Canada: Selected Highlights (Catalogue No. 89-509) can be ordered by completing the enclosed order coupon and mailing, with your payment, to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications in Canadian funds or equivalent. For faster service, use your Visa or MasterCard and call toll-free 1-800-267-6677.

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING: A THIRD TENURE FORM

by Mary Anne Burke



A small but growing number of Canadians have opted out of the traditional housing market in favour of co-operative housing, an alternative form of tenure.

In 1989, there were almost 61,000 housing units in 1,560 not-for-profit continuing co-operatives under federal and provincial co-operative housing programs. This was up from almost 23,000 units in 1981 and only 2,000 in 1973, when the National Housing Act was amended to allow for mortgage financing for housing co-operatives.

Although the number of co-operative housing units has increased sharply, they still accounted for only 0.6% of all units in Canada in 1989. This, however, was up from 0.3% in 1981 and just 0.03% in 1973.

Differences exist among the provinces, with co-operatives accounting for the largest share of all housing units in British Columbia (1%). In 1989, co-operatives made up 0.7% of all housing units in Ontario and the Territories, and 0.6% in Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Manitoba. In each of the remaining provinces, co-operatives accounted for 0.3% of all units.

What is co-operative housing?

Not-for-profit continuing housing co-operatives are incorporated associations that exist to provide private housing to members and to build communities. Members do not own the housing individually, but rather, jointly with the other co-operative members. They have the right to occupy, at cost, a unit appropriate to the individual's or household's needs.

Because ownership of the housing units rests permanently with the co-operative, members wishing to leave simply give written notice of their intentions, and the co-operative assigns the unit to a new member. Also, members cannot sell a unit nor make capital gains. On the other hand, they have security of tenure and do not risk losing their homes because of decisions made by non-residents.

Members are responsible for running the co-operative, electing a Board of Directors, voting on decisions affecting the co-operative, and making monthly payments against the mortgage and operating costs.

Co-operatives have the opportunity to maintain housing costs at affordable levels, for a variety of reasons: first, members control operating costs and vote annually on the budget and monthly housing charges; second, members can minimize housing charge increases by participating in the day-to-day operation of the co-operative, such as doing repairs and painting; and finally, no allowance for profit is built into the monthly housing charges.

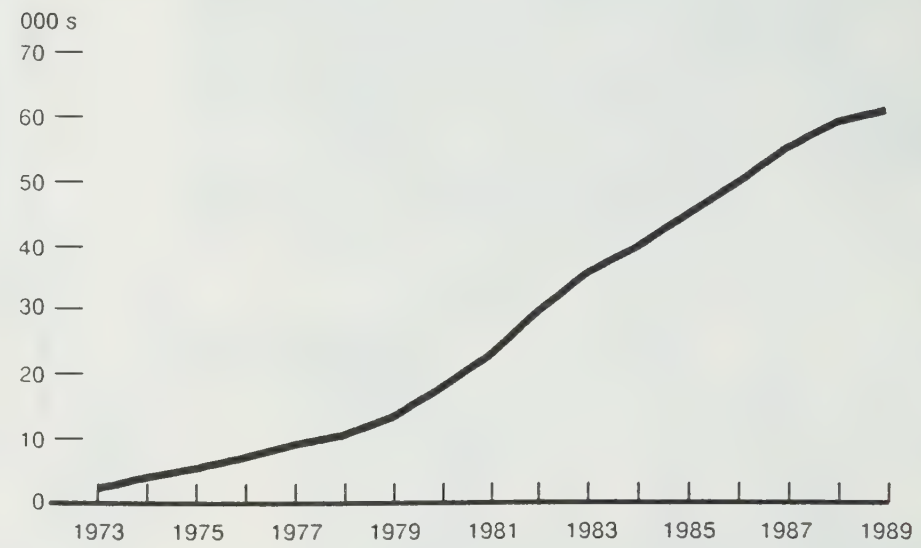
Contrary to popular belief, housing co-operatives are not specifically for low-income households. The goal is to have an income mix that approximates a cross-section of society, such that the average of incomes balances out to a medium income level. In co-operatives built before 1985, subsidies are available so that no household pays more than 25% of its income for housing. However, changes in the federal program in 1985 stipulated that in co-operatives built since then, only households below the low-income threshold, to a maximum of 25% of units (50% in some provinces), qualify for a subsidy. Consequently, some households above the low-income threshold, but still having relatively low incomes, must pay more than 25% of their income for co-operative housing.

Unlike residents of public housing, which is designed exclusively for low-income households, members do not have to leave a co-operative when their incomes reach a set level. However, many co-operatives have housing surcharges payable when incomes surpass a predefined ceiling.

Construction costs of co-operatives are controlled by maximum unit prices set by government. However, housing co-operatives are not easily identified as "low-cost" housing. As the initial investment will have an impact on future maintenance costs, emphasis is on good planning and design and quality construction.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

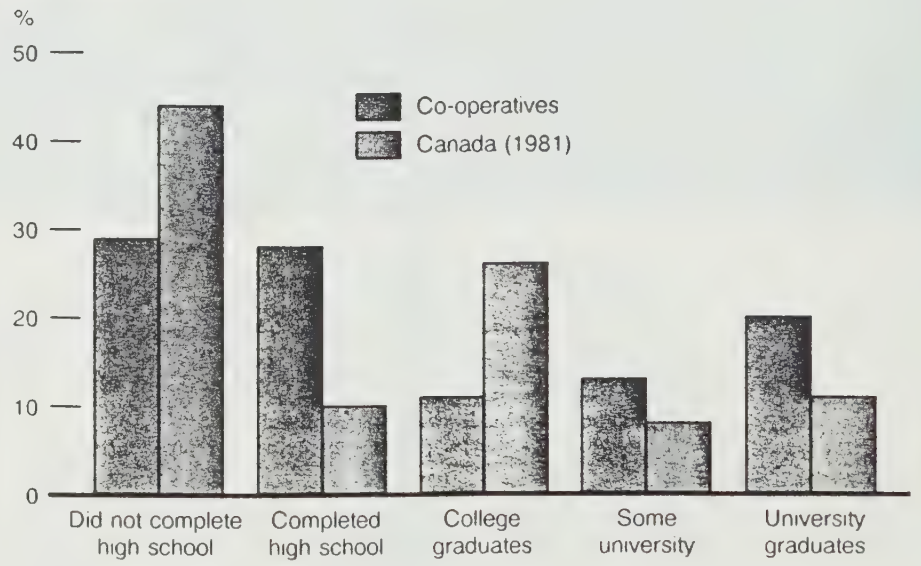
Total continuing co-operative housing units,[1] 1973-1989



[1] Refers to those funded under federal and provincial programs.
Source: Co-operative Housing Foundation of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Household maintainers in continuing housing co-operatives, by educational attainment, 1982



Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, unpublished data, and surveys listed in footnote 1, page 14.



Co-operative housing: The Canadian experience

Not-for-profit continuing co-operatives first emerged in Europe, primarily Scandinavia, during the 1920s. In Canada, students began to organize not-for-profit continuing co-operatives during the 1930s. Campus Co-operative, the first student housing co-operative, was developed in Toronto in 1936; today, it owns 27 turn-of-the-century houses near the University of Toronto. Since 1966, student co-operatives have been funded under the federal student housing program.

In 1960, the Co-operative Union of Canada, inspired by the co-operative housing model in Europe and the United States, began to explore the possibility of adapting that model for Canadian families. Willow Park in Winnipeg, the first continuing co-operative for families, was incorporated in 1961 and completed in 1966; it now includes a complex of 426 housing units, a day-care, and a small shopping centre.

Attracted by the success of Willow Park and the growing number of student housing co-operatives, two more family continuing co-operatives in Ontario and British Columbia followed in 1969.

The Co-operative Union of Canada, the Canadian Labour Congress, and the Canadian Union of Students were joined by the United Church of Canada and the Canadian Conference of Catholic Bishops to form the Co-operative Housing Foundation of Canada (CHF) in 1968, with financial assistance from the Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation. CHF took over promotion of the development of co-operative housing and provision of organizational, technical, and administrative services to emerging and existing co-operatives. In 1970, the Foundation negotiated a $30 million loan from the federal government for five pilot housing co-operatives.

The success of these five projects led the federal government, in June 1973, to amend the National Housing Act to allow mortgage financing for co-operatives. During the four years after the official creation of the Canadian not-for-profit continuing co-operative housing program, 10,000 units in 240 housing co-operatives were developed across the country.

After the introduction of a new unilateral federal funding program in 1979, the fledgling movement grew rapidly, adding a further 34,000 units in 900 co-operatives by 1985. That year, the federal program was replaced by a new program based on a CMHC index-linked mortgage (mortgage interest rates are periodically adjusted to the inflation rate of the previous year), with low-income rent supplements cost-shared with the provinces. The pace of development of co-operative units has slowed in recent years.

Who lives in housing co-operatives?

The Co-operative Housing Foundation (CHF) collected information in 1982 on the characteristics of residents of urban housing co-operatives in Toronto, Ottawa, and Montreal, as well as the region of Peel-Halton and the province of British Columbia.[1]

On a number of measures, co-operative households did not differ noticeably from 1981 Census national patterns. The average co-operative household size was 2.8 persons, compared with 2.9 for Canada. Families made up 72% of co-operative households; the figure for Canada was 75%. As well, people living alone accounted for 19% of co-operative households, compared with 20% for Canada.

On the other hand, in several ways, co-operative households differed from Canadian households overall. For example, lone-parent families were overrepresented in co-operatives. Lone-parent households comprised 21% of households in co-operatives, compared with 8% for Canada.

Co-operative households were also more likely to include children than were households in the rest of Canada. Children were present in 57% of co-operative households, compared with 49% for Canada as a whole.

Co-operative households had, on average, lower incomes than other households, and their income was less likely to come from employment. In the co-operatives surveyed, average 1982 household income was $19,860, compared with the 1982 Canadian average of $27,470. Employment earnings were the main source of income in 77% of co-operative households, compared with 83% of all households in Canada.

On the whole, household maintainers in co-operatives were better educated than those in Canada overall. In 1982, 20% of household maintainers in co-operatives were university graduates, almost double the corresponding figure (11%) for Canada. At the other end of the spectrum, just 29% of co-operative household maintainers had not finished high school, whereas the proportion for all household maintainers was 44%.

Commitment to special needs housing

The Canadian co-operative housing movement has a commitment to house people with special needs: those with physical, developmental, or psychiatric disabilities; lone-parent families; women in transition, such as battered women and teenage mothers; elderly people; refugees; Aboriginal people; and ex-inmates.

People with physical disabilities have been the most common special needs group housed in co-operatives. Since 1982, at the initiative of the co-operative housing movement, co-operatives receiving government financing have been required to design a minimum of 5% of their units so that they are accessible to those with physical disabilities, unless site conditions or the location of support services make this impossible.

Currently, almost 1,500 units, or 2.4% of all co-operative housing units, have design features required by people in wheelchairs. Some co-operatives, in fact, are entirely accessible to those with physical disabilities. Others have self-contained units or cluster units with organized support services for those with physical, developmental, or psychiatric disabilities. As well, some co-operative resource groups specialize in housing those with disabilities and in promoting accessible and adaptable housing co-operatives.

For many women who cannot afford shelter in the traditional housing market, co-operatives are a viable alternative. Lone-parent families, mainly headed by women, accounted for over one in five co-operative households surveyed in 1982. Also, some co-operatives have units set aside as temporary shelter, for periods of one month up to one year, for battered women and teenage mothers.

The proportion of women is high in co-operatives, and many women have assumed leadership roles. A 1985 study[2] found that in Toronto co-operatives, a majority of both residents and committee members were women; in fact, women chaired 60% of committees and held 52% of directorships.

The elderly are also well represented in housing co-operatives. For the most part, they have been integrated in mixed co-operatives. More than 40 co-operatives, however, have been developed exclusively for seniors.

In addition to the 1,560 housing co-operatives across the country, 60 resource groups and 18 local housing federations have grown out of the Canadian co-operative housing movement to assist new co-operatives to get off the ground or to offer support services to existing ones. Their presence attests to the commitment of many Canadians to continuing co-operative housing as a viable alternative to the traditional housing market.

Builders' co-operatives

Builders' co-operatives, another type of housing co-operative, have also been part of the Canadian co-operative housing experience. These co-operatives are formed by a group of 10 to 20 individuals to secure individual home ownership by helping to build each others' homes through "sweat equity." Once the homes have been built, the co-operative dissolves.

Inspired and assisted by adult educators from the Extension Department of St. Francis Xavier University, miners in Tomkinsville, Nova Scotia started the first Canadian builders co-operative in 1938. With the return of war veterans in the mid-1940s, the idea quickly spread to the other Atlantic Provinces and then to Quebec and Ontario, resulting in construction of 20,000 co-op units. As the population concentrated in large urban areas, builders' co-operatives became increasingly difficult, and since the 1960s, have virtually disappeared outside the Atlantic Provinces.

[1] Pinsky, Barry, *Housing Co-operatives in Peel-Halton: A Survey of Members,* Ottawa: CHF, 1982. Schiff, Myra, *Housing Co-operatives in Metropolitan Toronto: A Survey of Members,* Ottawa: CHF, 1982; *Housing Co-operatives in Ottawa: A Survey of Members,* Ottawa: CHF, *1982;* and *Housing Co-operatives in Montreal: A Survey of Members,* Ottawa: CHF, 1983.

[2] Doyle, B.F., *Women and Leadership in the Co-operative Housing Sector,* unpublished M.A. Thesis, Toronto: OISE, 1985.

Mary Anne Burke *is Associate Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

HOUSEHOLD PROPERTY CRIME

by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, about one in five Canadians believe that the level of crime in their neighbourhood has increased in recent years. When asked about the type of crime that concerns them most, half of Canadians listed property offences such as theft of belongings and damage to property. Results of the same survey suggest that these perceptions and concerns may be based on experience.

In 1987, an estimated 2.1 million Canadian households were victims of crimes involving their property. Calculated per 1,000 households, this represented 216 incidents of vandalism, break and enter, theft of motor vehicles or parts, and theft of household items.

Vandalism was the most commonly reported household property offence. In 1987, there were 63 incidents of vandalism for every 1,000 households. At the same time, there were 54 incidents of break and enter; 51 of theft of motor vehicles or parts; and 48 of theft of household items.



Highest rates in west

Household property crimes occur much more frequently in the Western provinces than in the rest of Canada. The highest household property crime rate was in British Columbia, where 364 such incidents were reported for every 1,000 households. In the Prairie provinces, the rate was 317 incidents per 1,000 households. In contrast, there were only 174 such crimes per 1,000 households in Quebec, 165 in Ontario, and 147 in the Atlantic region.

This pattern of higher rates in the west than in the east held for each type of household crime. For example, the incidence of vandalism was 106 per 1,000 households in British Columbia and 87 in the Prairies, compared with 55 in Quebec, 49 in Ontario, and 37 in the Atlantic region. Similarly, the rate of theft of motor vehicles or parts was 96 per 1,000 households in British Columbia and 82 in the Prairies, but just 37 in Quebec, 36 in Ontario, and 26 in the Atlantic region.

An urban problem

In general, household property crime is more likely to occur in urban than in rural regions. The rate for urban areas was 252 incidents per 1,000 households in 1987, compared with 146 for rural areas.

All types of household property crime are more common in urban than in rural areas. In 1987, the incidence of vandalism was 76 per 1,000 urban households, but 42 per 1,000 rural households. The rate of break and enter was 64 per 1,000 urban households, compared with 32 for those in rural regions. The figures for theft of motor vehicles or parts were 59 in urban and 36 in rural areas, and for thefts of household property, 54 and 35.

High income/high risk

The likelihood of sustaining household property crime tends to increase at higher income levels. In 1987, households with incomes of $40,000 or more reported the highest rate of crime (288 per 1,000 households), while those with incomes less than $15,000 reported the lowest (163).

The association between household property crime and income is most evident in the case of vandalism. There were 102 incidents of vandalism per 1,000 households with incomes over $40,000, compared with just 38 per 1,000 households in the less-than-$15,000 income range.

Similarly, the rate of theft of motor vehicles or parts varied from 72 per 1,000 households in the highest income group to 34 per 1,000 in the lowest bracket.

On the other hand, the association between income and theft of household

property or break and enter is not as strong. Rates of theft of household items ranged from 51 incidents per 1,000 households with incomes of $40,000 or more to 30 per 1,000 households in the less-than-$15,000 income range; for break and enter, the corresponding figures were 64 and 55.

Household size

One-person households have a lower risk of experiencing household property crime than do households with a number of members. People living alone reported 159 incidents per 1,000 households, compared with 234 for households with more than one member.

The difference is most pronounced for theft of household items and acts of vandalism. In fact, in 1987, the incidence of theft of household items for multiple-person households (54 per 1,000) was close to double that for one-person households (28). The pattern was similar for vandalism: the rate of such incidents for multiple-person households was 70 per 1,000, compared with 41 per 1,000 one-person households.

Tenure and dwelling type

Tenants generally report a higher rate of household property crime than do homeowners. In 1987, 231 incidents occurred for every 1,000 rented dwellings, compared with 207 for owner-occupied homes. This pattern holds for all types of household property crime except vandalism, which homeowners were more likely to report.

The risk of household victimization is also associated with dwelling type. In 1987, residents of doubles, rowhouses, and duplexes had the highest rates of break and enter and theft of household items, and the second highest rate of vandalism. The fact that these types of dwellings tend to be in high-density urban areas near potential offender populations may help explain the frequent occurrence of household property crime.

By contrast, residents of single-fami homes reported moderate levels of household property offences, whi occupants of apartment buildin reported below-average rates for all crim except theft of motor vehicles or par Restricted access into and awkwa escape routes from these buildings m reduce the risk of break and enter, theft household items, and vandalism. Ho ever, limited surveillance over garages a

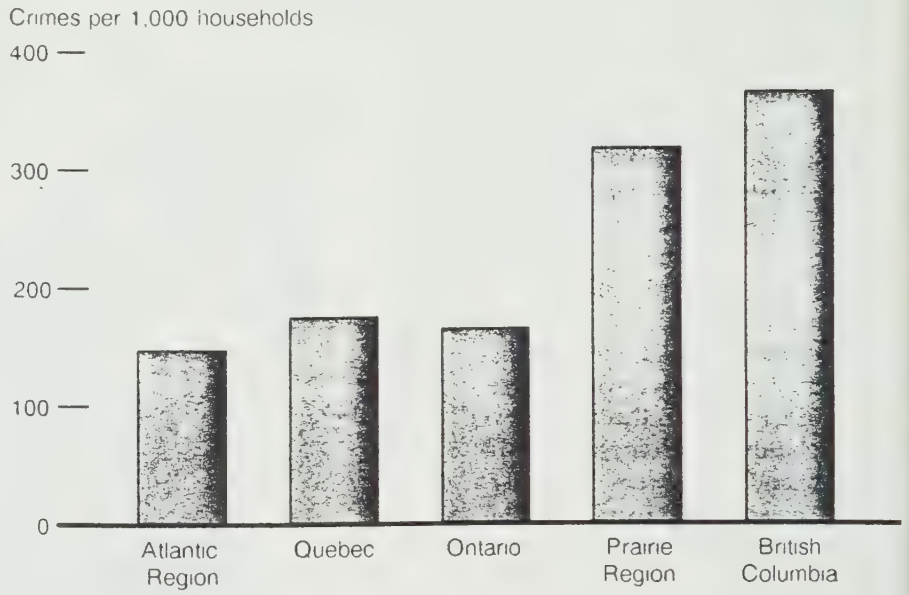
The third cycle of the General Social Survey (GSS), conducted early in 1988, asked Canadians about their experiences with certain crimes and their perceptions of crime and the criminal justice system.

The survey was designed to measure the incidence of crimes against the person such as sexual assault, robbery, assault, and theft of personal property, and crimes against the household such as break and enter, theft of motor vehicles, theft of household property, and vandalism.

A representative sample of 10,000 adults was interviewed for this survey. Estimates were made for the population aged 15 and over. By counting incidents that were not reported to the police, as well as those that were, the GSS provides information not available from police records.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Household crime victimization rates, by region, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1987.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Household crime victimization rates, by household income, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1987.

parking areas may leave apartment-dwellers more vulnerable to theft of motor vehicles or parts.

Time and location

Household property crimes occur more often in summer and autumn than in winter and spring. Close to a third (32%) of incidents took place in summer, while 26% occurred in autumn, 20% in winter, and only 15% in spring. Victims of the remaining 7% of incidents were unable to remember the season when they happened.

Household property crimes also tend to be night-time events. For example, in 1987, 62% of all such incidents happened after dark. It is not surprising, therefore, that household property crime rates climb steadily as residents' evening activities outside the home increase. Residents of households involved in 30 or more outside activities a month reported over 300 property crimes per 1,000 households, a rate two and a half times that associated with residents who reported 10 or fewer outside activities.

Losses and damage

The majority of household property crimes involve theft and/or damage. In more than half (55%) of incidents in 1987, property was stolen. The items taken most often were motor vehicle parts, although electronic equipment and bicycles were also common targets.

The likelihood of recovering stolen goods is slight. All the stolen property was recovered in just 7% of incidents, while a further 6% resulted in partial recovery. In the remaining 87%, nothing had been recovered by the time of the survey.

There was also damage to property in about half (51%) of all incidents. Most frequently, the damage was to a motor vehicle, although almost a quarter of incidents with damage involved the dwelling or another building on the property, such as a garage.

For incidents involving loss of property and/or damage, losses amounted to less than $100 in 30% of cases, and $100-$399 in 29%. Another 15% of incidents entailed losses of $400-$999, while in 16%, losses totalled $1,000 or more. The most costly incidents tended to be break and enter and motor vehicle theft.

Reporting to the police

Only about half of household property crimes ever come to the attention of the police. In 1987, the police learned about just 54% of all such incidents.

The police are most likely to find out about cases of break and enter: around 70% of these crimes were reported in 1987. Police also learned about 57% of thefts of motor vehicles or parts, 45% of vandalism cases, and 43% of thefts of household property.

Usually, it is the victim who reports the incident to the police. In fact, 79% of cases that came to the attention of police in 1987 were reported by the victim. The remaining 21% were reported by a neighbour, bystander, or other household member, or detected by the police themselves.

The main reasons why victims reported the incident were the desire to catch and punish the offender (79%) and to stop the incident or prevent its recurrence (74%). The need to file a claim for insurance or compensation was also an important reason for reporting the incident, especially theft of motor vehicles or parts (67%) and vandalism (59%).

The most common reasons for not reporting the incident were that it was "too minor" (75%) and that "the police couldn't do anything about it" (66%).

Compensation

Only a minority of incidents are followed by attempts to seek financial compensation from insurance companies.

In 1987, victims sought redress from insurance companies in 29% of incidents and were successful about three-quarters of the time. However, the proportion of victims seeking insurance compensation varied by the type of incident. Thefts of motor vehicles or parts were most likely to prompt compensation efforts (37%), while the figure was about 30% for break and enter and vandalism. On the other hand, just 18% of thefts of household items prompted compensation attempts.

Vincent Sacco *is Head of the Department of Sociology at Queen's University;* **Holly Johnson** *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

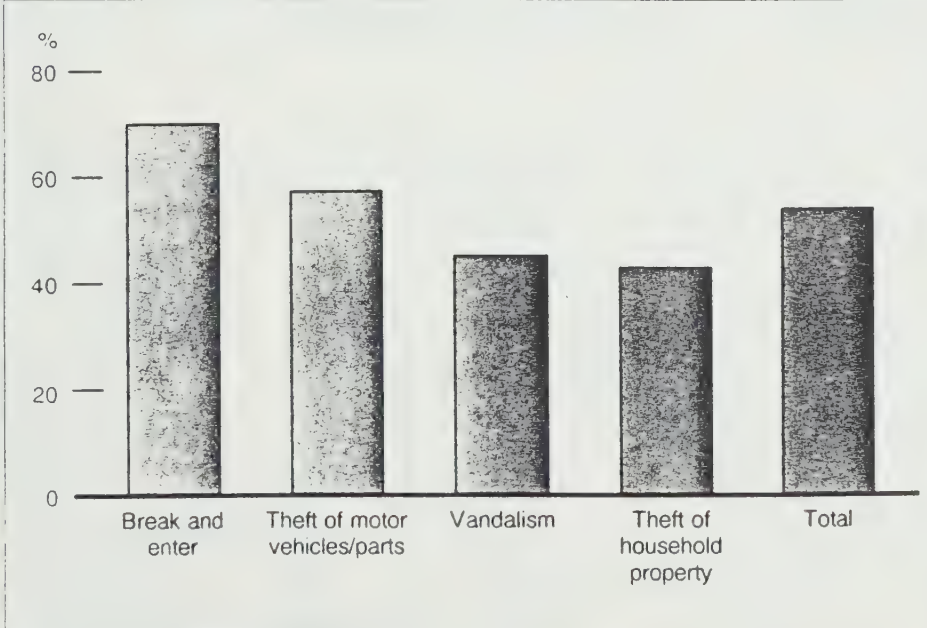
Home as fortress

In 1987, nearly one-quarter (23%) of all adults reported installing security hardware in their homes. Acquisition of these devices was more common in urban than in rural areas, and in high-income as opposed to low-income households.

Such security measures were taken by 26% of urban residents, compared with just 14% of people in rural areas. At the same time, installation of these devices was reported by 29% of residents of households with incomes over $60,000, but just 20% of those in households with incomes less than $15,000.

CANADIAN

Proportion of household crimes known by police, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1987.

HOUSEHOLD CHORES

by Katherine Marshall

Despite an abundance of labour-saving household appliances, which have had a major impact on the amount and nature of housework, Canadians still devote considerable time to household chores.[1] According to the 1986 General Social Survey, adult Canadians spend, on average, 1 3/4 hours a day on housework. Women, however, are responsible for the bulk of household tasks.



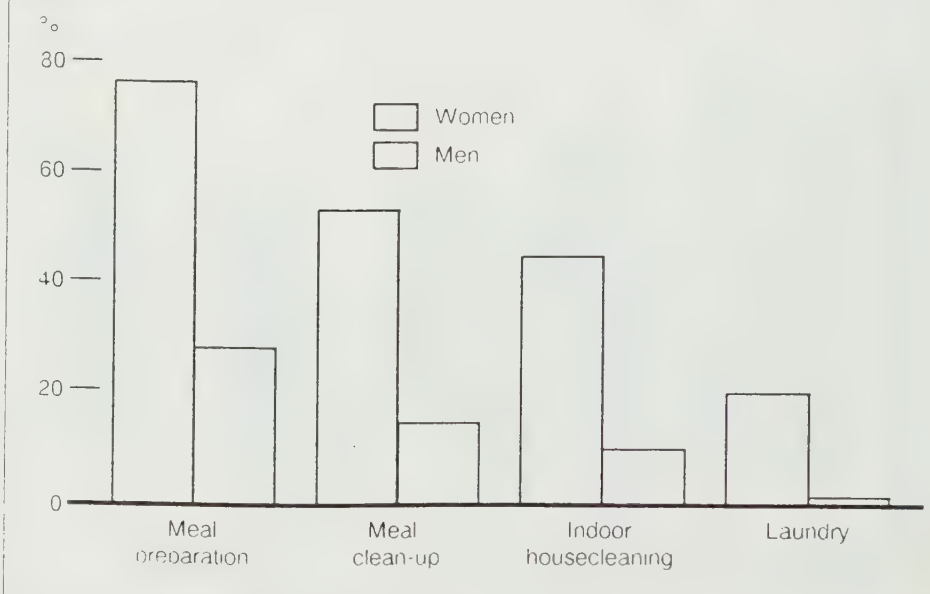
Household chores still done mainly by women

Averaged over all Canadians aged 15 and older, women spent 2 1/2 hours a day on housework, compared with 1 hour for men in 1986.

This difference occurs because, on any given day, women were much more likely than men to do housework, and also because the average time women spent on these activities was greater than that of men. The proportion of women who reported doing housework on a typical day was much higher than the corresponding figure for men: 85% versus 52%. These women spent an average of 3 hours on such chores, compared with 2 hours for the men.

Women's higher participation rates and greater commitments of time applied to most types of housework. For example, while 77% of women prepared meals on any given day and spent an average of about 1 1/4 hours doing so, only 29% of men prepared meals and averaged less than 3/4 hour on this activity. More than half of women (54%) cleaned up after meals, and 45% did indoor housecleaning. Participation in these tasks was low for men, at just 15% and 10%, respectively. Also, men who did engage in these

Percentage of women and men performing selected household chores, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986

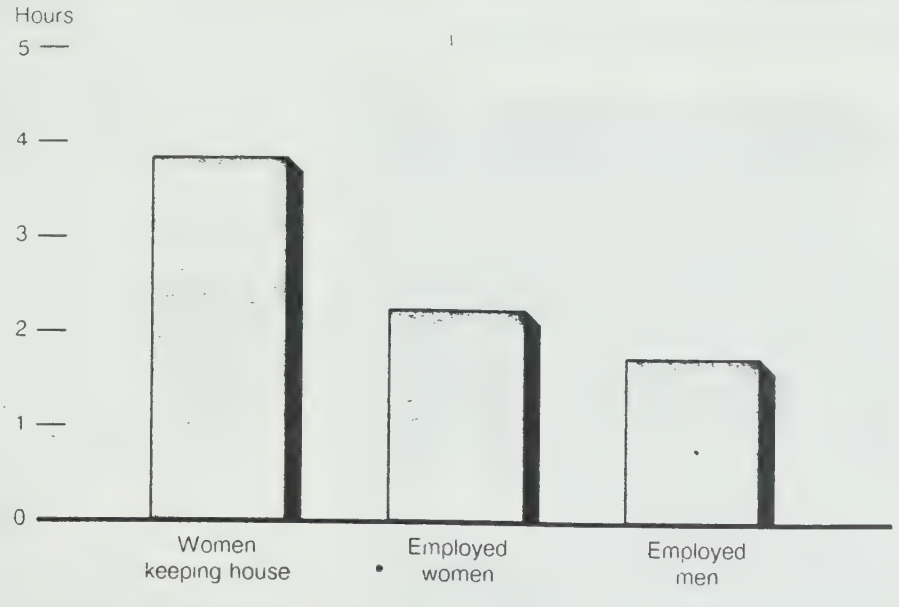
[1] Includes meal preparation and clean-up, indoor and outdoor cleaning, laundry, home repairs and maintenance, gardening, pet care, bill paying, and travel to and from these household chores.

activities spent only about one-fifth as long on them as did women.

Outdoor cleaning and home repairs were the only household tasks that men were more likely than women to perform. However, unlike most household chores, which must be done daily, these activities require only occasional involvement. On a given day, 7% of men reported doing outdoor clean-up, and 9% engaged in home repairs. By comparison, the figures for women were just 2% for each activity.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Time spent on household chores, by main activity, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

Daily participation rate and time spent on household chores, November 1986

	Participation rate		Average time spent by participants	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%		Hours/Minutes	
Age				
15-24	65	40	1:50	1:12
25-44	89	53	3:02	1:50
45-64	93	55	3:24	2:17
65 and over	90	61	3:00	2:11
Total 15 and over	85	52	2:57	1:53
Main activity				
Paid work	83	51	2:16	1:44
Looking for work	84	65	2:43	2:27
Student	57	36	1:28	1:04
Keeping house	97	91	3:52	3:35
Retired	88	62	2:51	2:21
Presence of children under age 19				
Children at home	94	53	3:22	2:01
No children at home	80	51	2:39	1:49

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

Employed women still homemakers

While women whose main activity was keeping house spend the most time on housework (about 4 hours a day, on average), women with jobs outside the home are also largely responsible for household chores. On a given day, 83% of working women did housework, and the time they spent on these activities averaged about 2 1/4 hours. In contrast, just half of working men did household chores, and they devoted an average of about 1 3/4 hours to these activities.

Housework patterns of working men and women who were married were even more divergent: 89% of these women did housework each day, compared with 51% of men.

Children increase housework

As might be expected, more time was devoted to domestic tasks in households with children. This was particularly true for women. In 1986, women who did housework spent an average of just under 3 1/2 hours on it if there were children under age 19 living at home. This was about 3/4 of an hour more than the time women without any children at home spent on housework.

Regardless of the presence of children, just over half of men participated in housework on any given day. However, men in households with children under age 19 spent about 20 minutes longer on household chores.

Katherine Marshall *is an analyst with the General Social Survey, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

THE FARM COMMUNITY

by Judie McSkimmings

The farm community has undergone numerous major changes in the last several decades. The number of farms has declined dramatically since the 1940s. The total amount of land under cultivation, however, has remained relatively stable, as the average size of Canadian farms has increased substantially.



The vast majority of farms remain family operated. However, the total farm population has declined, and the profile of farmers has changed. Farm operators tend to be older, and a larger proportion of them are women. Also, people living on farms are better educated than in the past. And while real farm family incomes are falling, off-farm work is providing a growing share of that income.

Number of farms down

The number of farms[1] in Canada has dropped sharply since the early 1940s. By 1986, there were fewer than 300,000 farms, down from a peak of almost 733,000 in 1941.

The sharpest decline in the number of farms occurred during the 1950s and 1960s. However, at 7.9%, the drop between 1981 and 1986 (from 320,000 to just 293,000) was greater than those in the two previous five-year periods. The number of farms decreased 7.5% between 1971 and 1976 and 6.0% between 1976 and 1981.

The drop in the number of farms between 1981 and 1986 was due mainly to a decline in those with relatively low sales. Farms with annual sales of less than $25,000 (real 1986 dollars) decreased 21%, whereas those with sales of $50,000 or more increased 24%. The number of farms with sales of $250,000 or more increased 78%.

Consequently, as a proportion of all farms, those with sales less than $25,000 fell from 53% in 1981 to 45% in 1986, while the share with sales over $50,000 rose from 29% to 39%. Also in 1986, over 4% of farms had sales in excess of $250,000, up from 2% in 1981.

Throughout the last several decades, the total amount of farmland has remained relatively stable, as the drop in the number of farms was offset by an increase in their size. In 1986, the average farm in Canada was 572 acres, compared with 511 acres in 1981 and 237 in 1941.

Family farms predominate

The number of individual family farms has fallen in recent years, but they still make up the vast majority of all farms in Canada. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of individual family farms declined 13%. And while they accounted for 82% of all farms in 1986, this was down from 87% in 1981.

In contrast, the number of corporate farms has increased. This increase, however, resulted from growth in the number of corporate farms in which the majority of shares were family owned. In comparison, the number of non-family-owned corporate farms changed little in recent years.

Corporate farms account for a disproportionate share of agricultural sales. In 1986, family-owned corporate farms made up 5% of all farms, but represented 20% of all agricultural sales. Similarly, while only 0.4% of all farms were non-family-owned corporate farms, they accounted for 4% of total agricultural sales.

Farm population declining

As the number of farms has fallen, so has the total farm population. In 1941, more than 3 million Canadians, 27% of the total population, lived on farms; however, by 1986, only 930,000 people, just 4% of all Canadians, were farm residents.

The percentage of people living on farms varies considerably by province, with Saskatchewan having the largest farm population. In 1986, 17% of Saskatchewan residents lived on farms. Farm dwellers also made up 8% of the population in each of Manitoba, Alberta, and Prince Edward Island. The figure falls to 3% in Ontario and to 2% in Quebec, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. In Newfoundland, just 0.4% of the population lived on farms.

Farmers older

Mirroring the pattern of the Canadian population overall, farmers are older now than in the past. Farm operators were, on average, 47.8 years old in 1986, up from 46.9 years in 1981.

The proportion of farm operators aged 55 and over increased between 1981 and 1986. In 1986, 34% of farm operators were aged 55 and over; this was up from 31% in 1981. In fact, the 1986 figure was the highest in the post-war period.

The relative growth in the number of older farmers did not prevail across the country. The number of farm operators aged 55 and over increased in the Western provinces between 1981 and 1986, but actually declined in the Eastern provinces. Ontario was the one province where the proportion of operators in this age range was relatively stable.

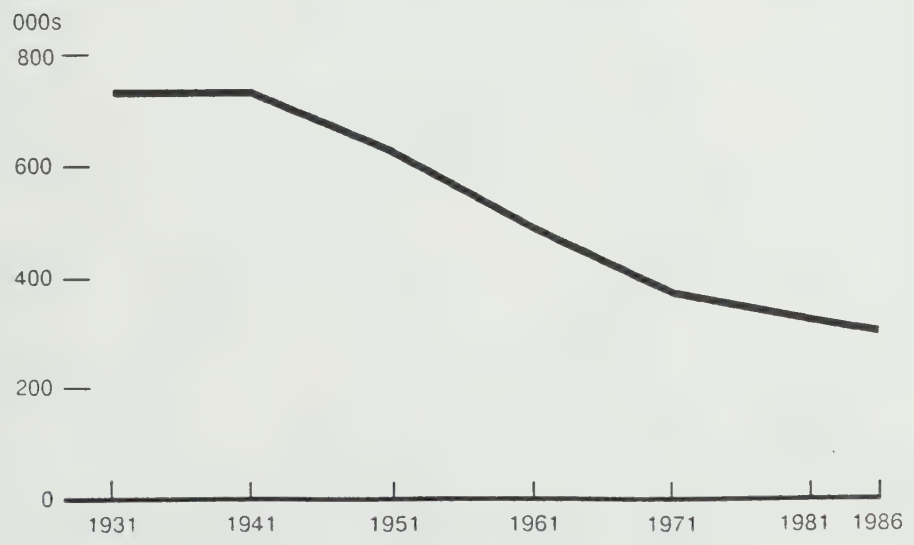
In contrast to older farmers, the proportion of farmers under age 35 has fallen. In 1986, 19% of all farm operators were under 35 years of age, down from 21% in 1981. This is a reversal of an earlier trend. Between 1966 and 1981, the proportion of farmers under age 35 rose from 15% to 21%.

Increasing levels of education

Farm residents are better educated today than in the past. In 1986, the farm population aged 15 and over averaged 11 years

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Number of farms, 1931-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.

[1] Includes all agricultural holdings with sales of $250 or more in the previous year.

of schooling, two years more than in 1971, but about the same as in 1981.

There was a sharp increase in the share of the farm population with a university degree. In 1986, 5% of the farm population aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from fewer than 1% in 1971. Still, the proportion of farm residents with a university degree in 1986 was only half that for the population overall (10%).

On the other hand, the share of the farm population with less than Grade 9 is about the same as that of the population in general. In 1986, 20% of adults living on farms had not attended high school, compared with 18% of all Canadians. The figure for the farm population was down sharply from 43% in 1971.

Female farm operators

Although the vast majority of farm operators are men, the share of farms operated by women has increased in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of female farm operators rose 18%, while the number operated by men fell 9%. As a result, women represented 4.5% of all farm operators in 1986, up from 3.5% in 1981.

Women, however, participate in most farm operations. By far, the largest number of women involved in farming are the spouses of farm operators.

Farm family incomes falling

Average income declined for all families during the first half of the 1980s. The decline among farm families, however, was somewhat sharper than that for all Canadian families. Between 1980 and 1985, average family income, in constant 1985 dollars, fell 5% among farm families, but just 1% among all families. As a result, in 1985, the total average income for farm families ($35,400) was about 92% that for all families ($38,700).

The overall drop in average farm family income masks an even greater decline in income specifically from farm activities. Between 1980 and 1985, real income from these activities fell 26%. In contrast, real income from off-farm work declined only slightly in this period, while income from other sources, such as investments, rose 19%.

As a result, income from farm activities represented just 23% of total farm family income in 1985, down from 30% in 1980. Over the same period, the contribution of off-farm earnings to farm family income increased from 53% to 55%, while the share reported as other income rose from 17% to 22%.

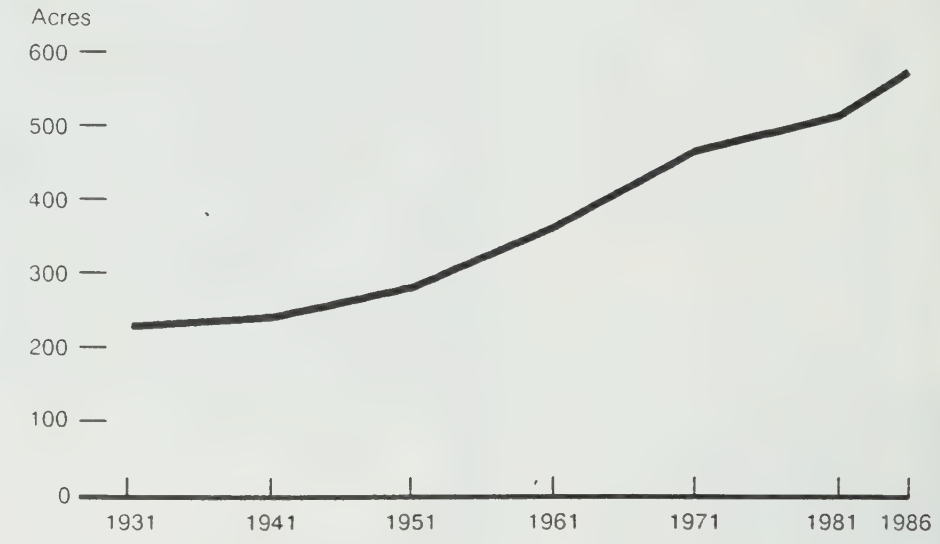
Off-farm work increasing

Over the years, farm families have spent an increasing amount of time on off-farm work. The average number of days worked off-farm by farm operators who participate in this activity has increased steadily from 148 days in 1960 to 173 days in 1985. However, the percentage of farm operators engaging in off-farm work has remained fairly constant, at around one-third, since the 1940s.

Still, the majority (61%) of farm operators did not report any off-farm work in 1986. Farmers who did not work off their farms tended to be older and had fewer years of schooling than those who did off-farm work. Also, their overall income was 23% lower than that of farmers who engaged in off-farm work. The amount of income they received strictly from farm activities, however, was substantially above that reported by those who worked off their farms. As well, operators who did no off-farm work

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

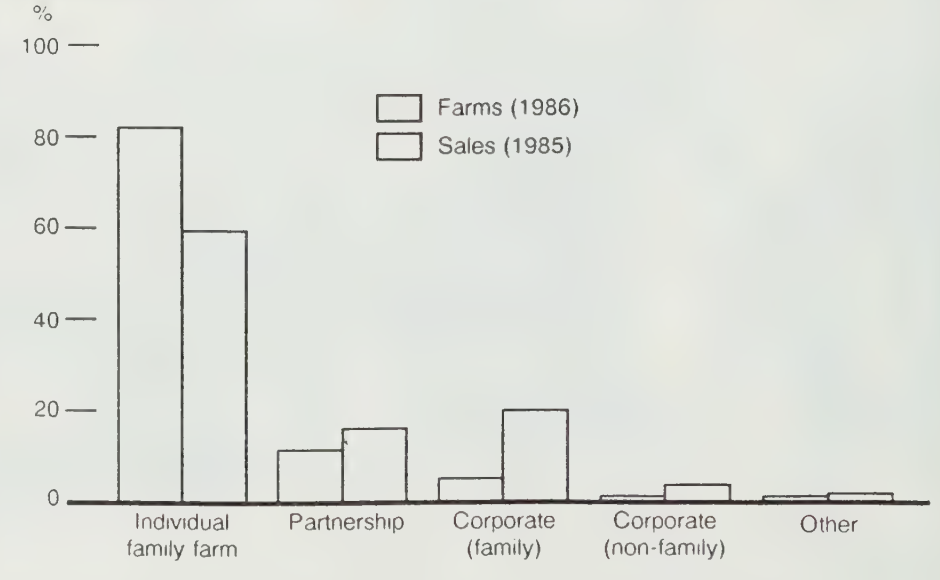
Average farm size, 1931-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of farms and agriculture sales, by type of ownership



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.



controlled 72% of total farm capital and accounted for 80% of agricultural sales. This may be explained, in part, by the longer hours they devoted to farming, and by the fact that their farms tended to be larger (an average of 667 acres) than those of operators who did off-farm work (367 acres).

As well, a growing proportion of farm spouses are in the labour force. In 1986, 66% of farm wives were in the labour force, compared with 57% of all married women. Of farm spouses in the labour force, 60% were paid workers, while 26% were unpaid family workers, and 14% were self-employed.

In 1985, spouses were responsible for 23% of total farm family income, up from 18% in 1980. In fact, in 1985, 16% of farm spouses provided at least half the total family income.

Farm debts

In 1985, farm operators' average interest payments were $10,800 per farm. Overall, 61% of farm operators made interest payments that year, while the remaining 39% reported no such payments.

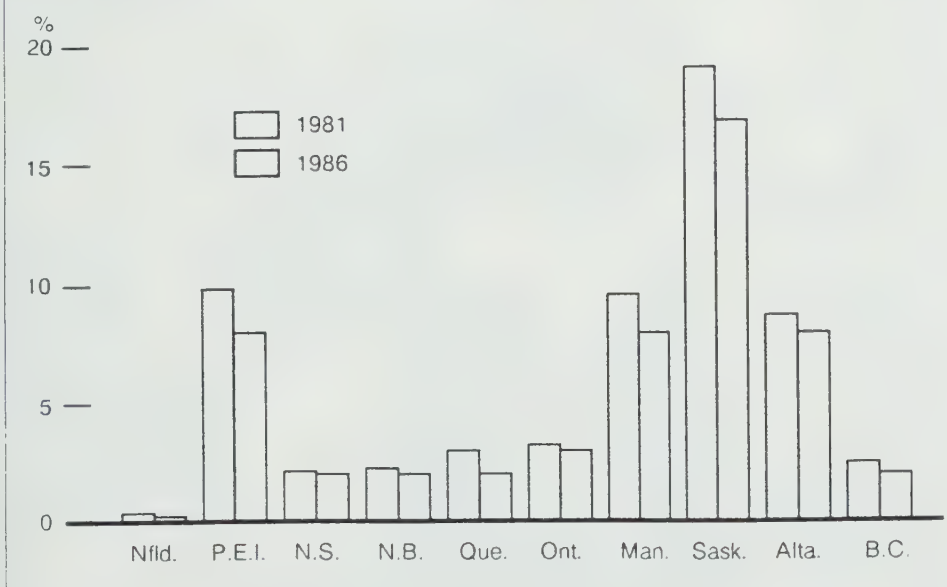
The proportion of farm operators reporting interest expenditures varies considerably by size of farm sales. For farms with gross sales under $10,000, 31% reported paying interest in 1985, whereas for farms with gross sales of $250,000 or over, 89% reported interest expenditures.

The proportion reporting interest expenditures also varies by the age of the operator. While 74% of operators under 35 years of age reported interest expenses, the proportion among operators aged 55 and over was 39%.

Judie McSkimmings *is Agricultural Sector Head, Census Communications and Marketing, Communications Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN

Proportion of population living on farms, by province, 1981 and 1986



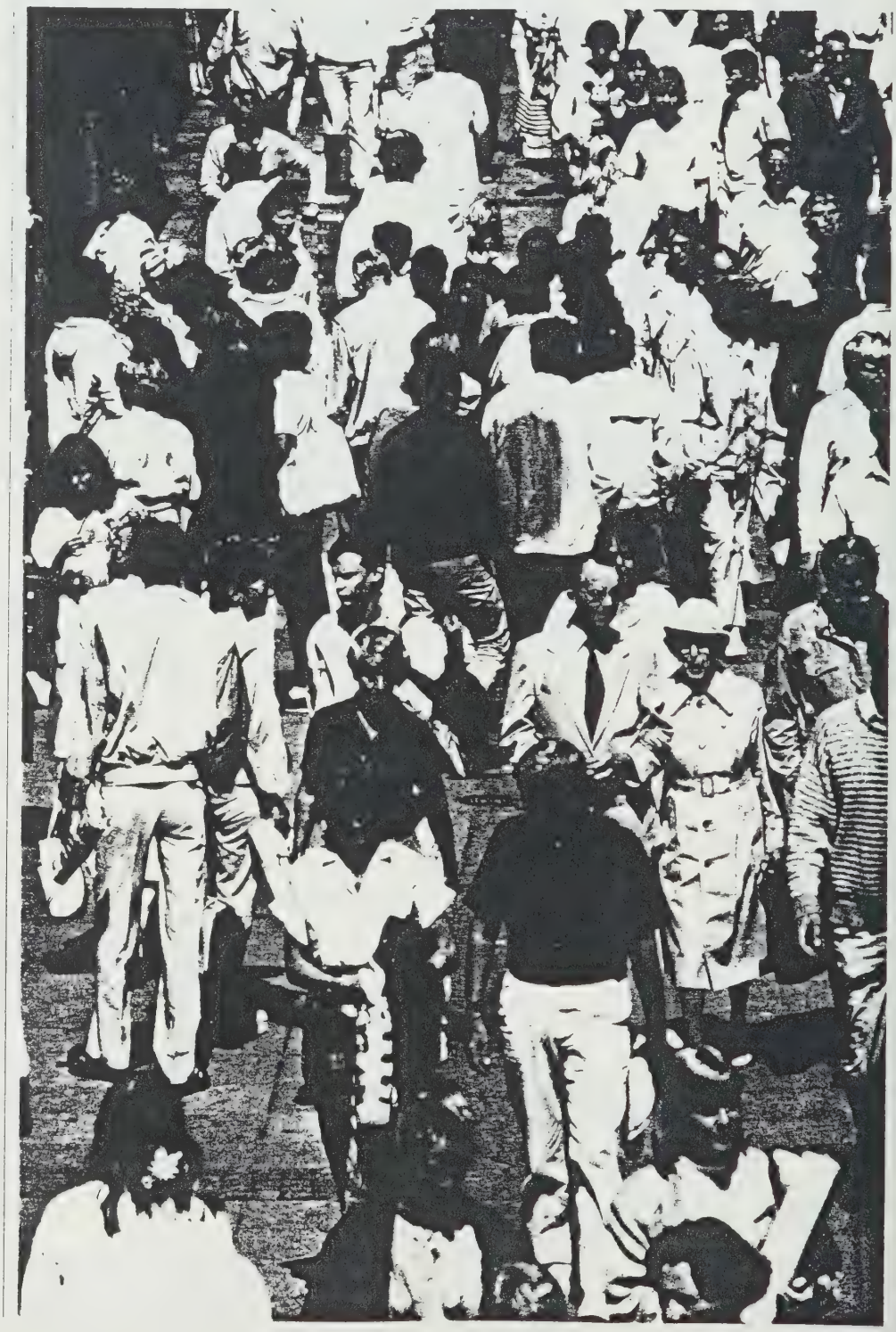
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture

REGIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

by David Gower

The overall level of unemployment in Canada has declined dramatically since the end of the recession. By 1988, the average annual unemployment rate had dropped below 8%, down from a peak of almost 12% in 1983.

Yet despite this relatively low overall rate, high levels of unemployment prevail in some regions, while in others, rates are well below the national level. In fact, the disparity in regional unemployment actually widened in recent years.



Ontario rates lowest

Canada's lowest levels of unemployment are increasingly concentrated in Ontario. In fact, nine of the ten labour markets with the lowest unemployment rates in 1988 were in Ontario, and the remaining one was the Ottawa-Hull CMA, a large part of which is in Ontario. The fact that almost all the lowest rates in 1988 were in Ontario was a major change from 1985, when only five of the ten areas with the lowest unemployment were in that province.

Toronto and the regions around Toronto, including the CMAs of London, Kitchener–Waterloo, Oshawa, Hamilton, and St. Catharines–Niagara, as well as non-metropolitan Central and Southern Ontario, all had unemployment rates well below the national average in 1988.

Moreover, Toronto has consistently had the lowest level of unemployment of any region in recent years. In 1988, just 3.7% of Toronto's labour force was unemployed, a figure less than half the national average. Rates in Toronto's neighbouring regions ranged from a low of 4.4% in London to a high of 6.4% in St. Catharines–Niagara.

The largest relative improvement in regional unemployment, though, occurred in the Thunder Bay CMA. By 1988, this area had the 8th lowest unemployment rate of the 40 regions; in 1985, it ranked 21st.

Unemployment rates in 40 subprovincial economic regions, 1985 and 1988

	Unemployment rate		Rank	
	1985	1988	1985	1988
	%		No.	
Toronto CMA	6.7	3.7	1	1
London CMA	8.8	4.4	12	2
Central Ontario non-CMA	7.2	4.7	4	3
Ottawa-Hull CMA	8.3	5.0	7	4
Kitchener-Waterloo CMA	7.2	5.1	3	5
Oshawa CMA	7.2	5.2	5	6
Hamilton CMA	8.8	5.7	13	7
Thunder Bay CMA	10.7	6.1	21	8
Southern Ontario non-CMA	10.1	6.2	19	9
St. Catharines-Niagara CMA	10.7	6.4	22	10
Saskatchewan non-CMA	7.1	6.9	2	11
Alberta non-CMA	8.3	7.0	8	12
Manitoba non-CMA	7.3	7.0	6	13
Regina CMA	9.6	7.1	15	14
Eastern Ontario/West/ South Quebec non-CMA	9.8	7.3	17	15
Northern Ontario non-CMA	9.7	7.7	16	16
Halifax CMA	9.5	7.8	14	17
Windsor CMA	8.4	7.9	9	18
Calgary CMA	10.2	8.1	20	19
Winnipeg CMA	8.8	8.3	11	20
Quebec CMA	8.6	8.4	10	21
Central Quebec non-CMA	11.6	8.8	23	22
Abitibi-Northern Quebec	13.7	9.2	32	23
Edmonton CMA	12.0	9.2	25	24
Montreal CMA	11.7	9.3	24	25
Vancouver CMA	13.2	9.4	29	26
Sudbury CMA	13.5	9.8	31	27
Saskatoon CMA	10.0	9.9	18	28
Victoria CMA	13.0	10.2	27	29
Trois-Rivières CMA	12.9	10.4	26	30
Saint John CMA	15.4	10.9	35	31
Chicoutimi CMA	13.2	11.0	28	32
St. John's CMA	14.8	11.3	33	33
British Columbia non-CMA	15.5	11.6	37	34
Nova Scotia non-CMA	16.2	11.8	38	35
New Brunswick non-CMA	15.1	12.3	34	36
Prince Edward Island	13.3	13.0	30	37
Lac-St-Jean-Côte Nord non-CMA	15.4	13.1	36	38
Lower St. Lawrence	17.7	13.8	39	39
Newfoundland non-CMA	24.0	19.2	40	40

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Major improvements also occurred in the London and St. Catharines–Niagara CMAs and non-metropolitan Southern Ontario. London, in fact, had the 2nd lowest unemployment rate in Canada in 1988, compared with the 12th lowest in 1985.

On the other hand, five regions that had been among the ten with the lowest unemployment rates in 1985 had slipped below 10th by 1988. These included Windsor and Quebec City, and the non-CMA areas of Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Manitoba.

Unemployment in large CMAs

Of the three largest CMAs, Toronto was the only one with relatively low unemployment. By contrast, unemployment rates in Montreal and Vancouver were above the national average. In 1988, Montreal had an unemployment rate of 9.3%, while Vancouver's rate was 9.4%. These two CMAs ranked 25th and 26th, respectively, in terms of unemployment that year.

Levels highest in east

Almost all of the ten areas with the highest unemployment rates in 1988 were in the Atlantic region and Quebec. The exception was non-metropolitan British Columbia.

By far, the highest unemployment rate of any region in recent years was in non-metropolitan Newfoundland. The rate in this area in 1988, at 19.2%, was more than five percentage points above the next highest one.

Subprovincial economic regions

For the purposes of this study, the country was delineated into 40 subprovincial areas that represent, as closely as possible, economic regions. The 24 Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) accounted for the majority of these regions. CMAs were used because their boundaries are based on commuting patterns, and therefore, they are among the most homogeneous labour markets in the country.

The remaining subprovincial economic regions were made up of the areas outside the CMAs. In most provinces, the total area outside the CMAs was treated as if it were a single labour market. In Ontario and Quebec, the non-CMA population was large enough to permit further breakdowns.

Five other areas in the Atlantic provinces were among the ten regions with the highest unemployment rates. These included the Saint John and St. John's CMAs, Prince Edward Island, and the non-metropolitan areas of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Unemployment in these regions ranged from 10.9% in the Saint John CMA to 13.0% in Prince Edward Island.

The Lower St. Lawrence and Lac-St-Jean-Côte Nord regions of Quebec also had relatively high levels of unemployment. These areas had the second and third highest unemployment rates in 1988, at 13.8% and 13.1%, respectively. The Chicoutimi CMA, with an unemployment rate of 11.0%, was the other Quebec area among the ten regions with the highest rates.

Unlike most regions in Quebec which remained at about the same rank or lost ground relative to other regions in recent years, the Abitibi/Northern Quebec region actually fared considerably better in 1988 than in 1985. By 1988, it had the 23rd lowest unemployment rate, up from 32nd in 1985.

Regional inequality growing

It appears that regional inequality in unemployment is growing. The average unemployment rate in the ten areas with the highest rates in 1988 was 2.4 times greater than that in the ten areas with the lowest rates. In comparison, in 1985, the average figure in the ten highest areas was only 2.1 times greater than in the ten lowest areas.

This gap widened because the relative decline in unemployment was sharper in the ten areas with the lowest rates than in the ten areas with the highest rates. Between 1985 and 1988, unemployment rates dropped about 40% in the ten lowest unemployment regions, compared with just over a 20% decline in the high unemployment regions.

David Gower *is an analyst with the Labour and Housebold Surveys Analysis Divison, Statistics Canada.*

- More information on this topic is available in the article "Canada's Unemployment Mosaic" by the same author in the first issue of *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

THE 1986 CENSUS PROFILES

YOUR TICKET TO ANY COMMUNITY IN CANADA



The 1986 profiles will put you on the fast track to any Canadian community you want to study . . .

You're looking for a fast introduction to the social and demographic realities of a city, a town, a municipality or an entire province. And you don't have the time to wade through piles of statistics.

Focus in on the area of your choice with a CENSUS PROFILE. Each PROFILE features more than 46 items of information on the area that interests you . . . from population counts, to the living arrangements of its elderly.

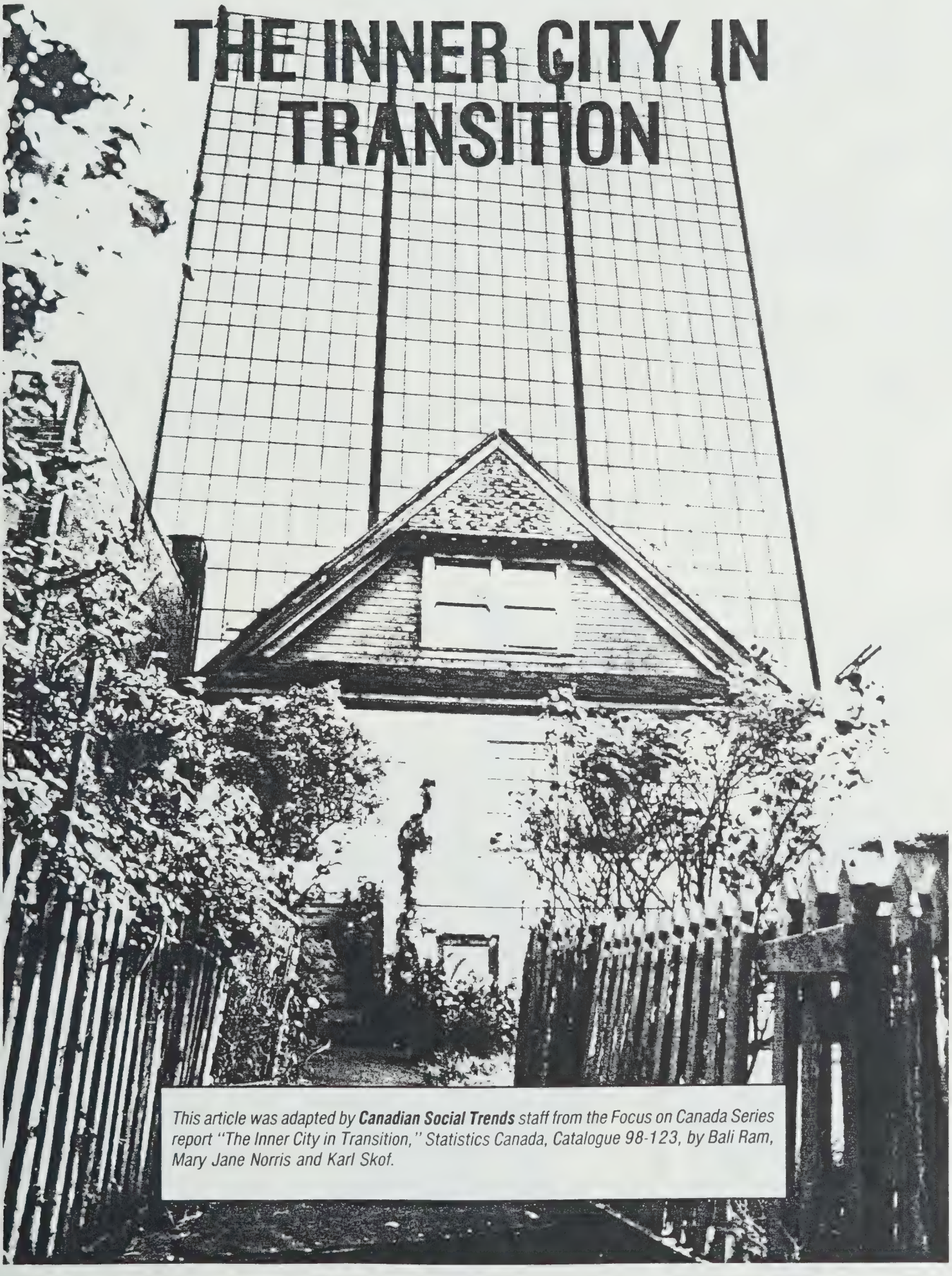
Choose a PROFILE on any one of
- 6009 Census Subdivisions (municipalities)
- 266 Census Divisions (counties)
- 295 Federal Electoral Districts
- 25 Census Metropolitan Areas
- 114 Census Agglomerations
- a variety of urban/rural breakdowns

With 52 publications in this series, we can fast track you to any destination you want.

THE 1986 CENSUS PROFILES. YOUR TICKET.

For more information, call us at 1-800-267-6677 and request the Census brochure (which includes ordering information), or write us at: **Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6**

THE INNER CITY IN TRANSITION



This article was adapted by ***Canadian Social Trends*** *staff from the Focus on Canada Series report "The Inner City in Transition," Statistics Canada, Catalogue 98-123, by Bali Ram, Mary Jane Norris and Karl Skof.*

In the first half of the 1980s, the total number of people living in the inner city cores of 12 Canadian metropolitan areas[1] increased. This reversed the steady population decline that had typified inner cities from 1951 to 1981.

The total population living in the inner-cities of the 12 urban areas rose 5% between 1981 and 1986, from 434,000 to 456,000.

While this is not a particularly large increase, it marks a major change from the previous three decades when the number of people living in inner cities dropped precipitously. Between 1951 and 1981, the population in these areas declined 40%, from 728,000 to 434,000. The sharpest decrease occurred between 1971 and 1981, when the inner-city population fell 18%; however, declines during the 1950s and 1960s were also substantial.

Smaller share of urban population

Not surprisingly, the inner cities' share of the total urban population has also dropped steeply since the early 1950s. This trend continued in the first half of the 1980s; however, the decline during this period was relatively small.

In 1986, the inner cities accounted for 3.8% of residents of the 12 urban areas, down slightly from 4.0% in 1981. The 1986 figure, however, represents a major decrease from 1951 when 15.8% of all urban residents had lived in inner cities.

The decline in the inner-city share of the urban population reflects not only the sharp drop in the number of people living in these areas, but also the fact that while inner-city boundaries have remained constant, annexations have enlarged outlying areas. Overall, the total population in the outlying regions of the 12 urban areas grew almost 200% between 1951 and 1986, from 3.9 million to 11.6 million.

Different cities, different patterns

While the aggregated population in the 12 inner cities increased, there were considerable differences in the population dynamics of different metropolitan areas.

The greatest inner-city growth during the 1981-1986 period was in Saskatoon, where the number of residents rose 14%. At the same time, there was a 12% rise in the inner-city population of Toronto and 9% increases in Calgary and Winnipeg. Growth was below 5% in the other cities.

The exceptions to this pattern were Montreal and Saint John where the inner-city populations continued to fall in the early 1980s. These declines, however, were small.

Few children, many elderly

In general,[1] young people are under-represented in inner cities, while the elderly are over-represented. In 1986, people under age 15 made up 9% of the total inner-city population, compared with 20% in the outlying areas. Conversely, 15% of the population of the inner cities were aged 65 and over, in comparison with only 10% of people living in outlying areas.

Large working-age population

A relatively large share of the inner-city population is aged 20-34. In 1986, this age group accounted for 37% of the



population in the inner cities, compared with 28% in the outlying areas. As well, since the early 1960s, the proportion of residents aged 20-34 has risen about twice as fast in the inner cities as in the outlying areas.

On the other hand, people aged 35-64 make up about the same percentage of the population in both inner cities and outlying areas. In 1986, this age group represented about 34% of the residents of each region.

More singles and lone-parent families

Given the higher proportions of both young adults and elderly people in the inner cities, it is not surprising that a relatively large share of people in these areas are not married. In 1986, more than six out of ten inner-city residents aged 15 and over were single (46%), widowed (8%), or divorced (8%). In comparison, fewer than four out of ten people in the outlying urban areas were not married: 28% were single; 6% were widowed; and 4% were divorced.

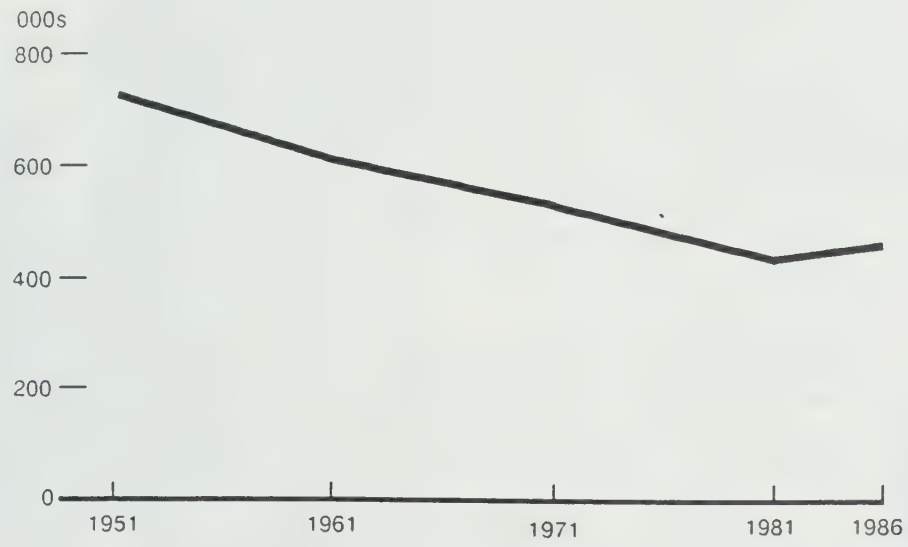
As well, inner cities have high concentrations of people living alone. In 1986, people living alone occupied more than half (56%) of inner-city households, compared with just 22% of those in outlying areas.

Inner cities also tend to have a much higher proportion of lone-parent families than do outlying areas. In 1986, 22% of inner-city families had only one parent, compared with 14% of families in the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

As well, inner-city families are less likely than those in outlying areas to have children. Almost half (49%) of families in inner cities, compared with just a third (32%) in outlying areas, had no children in 1986. At the same time, only 8% of inner-city families, in contrast to 13% of those in the remainder of the metropolitan areas, had three or more children.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

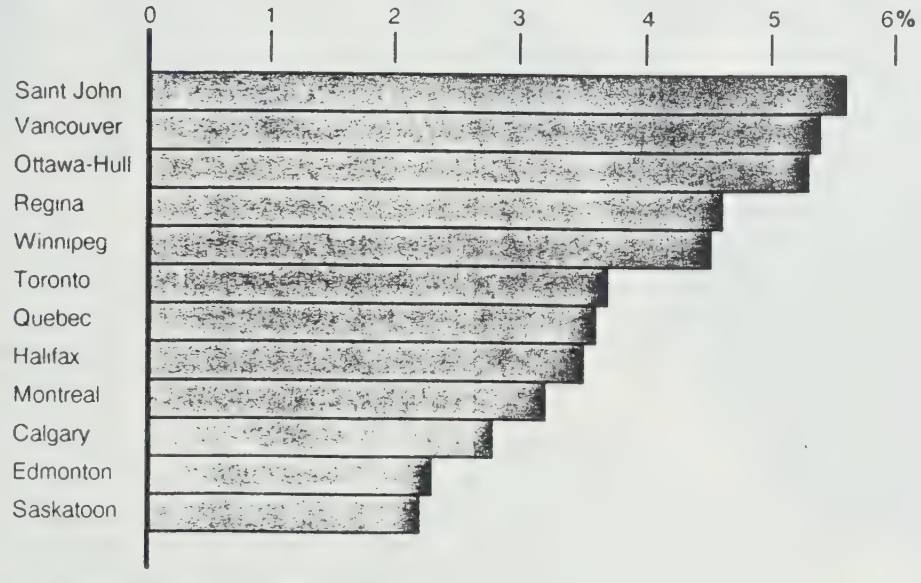
Total inner-city population, 1951-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Inner-city residents as a percentage of total population in selected metropolitan areas, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Many immigrants

Immigrants make up a relatively high proportion of inner-city residents. In 1986, 30% of inner-city residents were immigrants, compared with only 22% of people in outlying areas.

As well, concentrations of recent immigrants are higher in inner cities than in outlying regions. Immigrants who arrived in the country after 1978 accounted for almost 35% of the immigrant population in the inner cities, compared with just 20% of immigrants in the outlying regions.

Inner-city residents better educated

People living in inner cities are, on average, better educated than their counterparts in outlying areas. In 1986, 21% of inner-city residents, compared with only 12% of people in the remainder of the metropolitan areas, had a university degree. The percentage of inner-city residents (15%) with some university experience, but no degree, also exceeded that for the population in the outlying areas (11%).

At the same time, though, a slightly higher proportion of inner-city residents (16%) than suburban dwellers (14%) had less than Grade 9.

[1] Includes Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, Winnipeg, Quebec, Halifax, Saskatoon, Regina, and Saint John. The inner city, as defined for the purposes of this study, refers to the core of the metropolitan area; it encompasses the site of the earliest development of the city, the central business district, and the surrounding areas of mixed land uses, which may include high density residential developments.

Occupation

Inner cities also differ from outlying areas in the occupational distribution of their residents. In 1986, 37% of labour force participants residing in inner cities, compared with only 28% of those in outlying areas, had managerial or professional jobs. This pattern held for both men and women.

The inner cities also had a larger concentration of both men and women working in service occupations than did the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

Men living in the inner cities were more likely than suburban dwellers to be employed in clerical and related occupations. However, the proportion of the female labour force in clerical jobs was smaller than in the outlying areas (30% versus 37%).

Family income

Incomes of inner-city families are considerably lower than those in the outlying areas. The median income of inner-city families in 1985 was $23,600, just 62% that of families in the remainder of the metropolitan areas.

Moreover, the disparity between incomes in the inner cities and the outlying areas widened during the last decade and a half. For example, in 1970, the median income of inner-city families was 70% that of families in the outlying areas. However, the widening gap is perhaps to be expected, given the increasing concentration of both young and lone-parent families in the inner cities.

As well, the proportion of inner-city families with 1985 incomes less than $20,000 was about twice as high as in outlying areas: 39% versus 21%. However, the proportion of families with incomes of $60,000 or more was almost the same in the inner cities (15%) as in the outlying areas (19%).

There was wide variation, though, in the median income of inner-city families in different urban areas. The median income of inner-city residents ranged from around $30,000 in Ottawa-Hull ($31,300), Toronto ($30,600), and Saskatoon ($29,500) to just $18,200 in Saint John and $16,000 in Winnipeg. In fact, more than half of all inner-city families in Saint John and Winnipeg had incomes under $20,000. In contrast, just 28% of inner-city families in Ottawa-Hull, 32% of those in Edmonton, and 33% in Toronto had incomes below $20,000.

At the same time, there were relatively large proportions of inner-city families with incomes over $60,000 in Toronto (22%), Ottawa-Hull (19%), and Montreal (16%).

Home ownership

Few homes in the inner cities are owner-occupied. In 1986, just 14% of inner-city dwellings were owner-occupied, compared with 57% of those in the outlying areas.

Although inner cities generally contain much older housing stock than outlying areas, their share of newly constructed owner-occupied dwellings is the same as that in the remaining metropolitan areas.

In 1986, well over half (57%) of all owner-occupied dwellings in the inner cities were constructed before 1946, compared with just 15% of those in the outlying areas. However, 13% of all owner-occupied dwellings in both inner cities and outlying areas were built since 1981.

The share of newly constructed dwellings is even higher in some inner cities than in their respective outlying areas. For example, in Calgary, 42% of all owner-occupied dwellings in the inner city, but just 17% of those in the outlying areas, were built during the 1981-1986 period.

Home values and costs

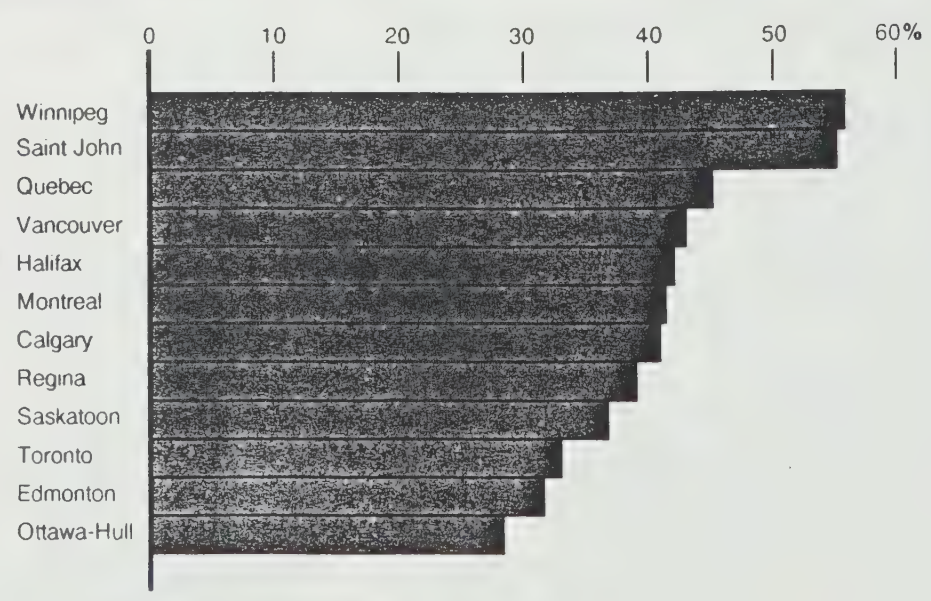
The value of inner-city homes tends to be relatively high. In 1986, the average value of owner-occupied dwellings in the inner cities was $140,300, compared with $108,300 in the rest of the metropolitan areas. However, inner cities also have a higher proportion of low-value housing. In 1986, 14% of owner-occupied inner-city dwellings were below $50,000 in value, compared with only 9% in outlying areas.

Older dwellings in inner cities tend to be worth more than similar dwellings in outlying areas. In 1986, 36% of inner-city dwellings built before 1946 were worth $150,000 or more, compared with just 23% of those in outlying metropolitan areas.

Inner-city rents are lower, on average, than those in the rest of the metropolitan areas. In 1986, the average gross rent in inner cities was $435 a month, compared with $463 in outlying areas. As well, 52% of rented dwellings in the inner city, compared with 46% of those in outlying areas, had an average gross monthly rent of less than $400.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of inner-city families with income less than $20,000 in selected metropolitan areas, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

WINNIPEG



Situated at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, Winnipeg is the capital and the largest city in Manitoba. The city has traditionally functioned as a distributing and financial centre and as a grain market. A cosmopolitan city of many ethnic groups, Winnipeg dominates Manitoba's cultural life, notably as home to the Royal Winnipeg Ballet.

Although many of the characteristics of Winnipeg residents closely resemble those of Canadians overall, others set Winnipeg apart. Among them are the ethnic mix of Winnipeg's population and the high incidence of low-income in the city. And as is true of other Prairie cities, Winnipeg has a relatively large Aboriginal population.

Moderate growth

With 625,300 residents in 1986, Winnipeg is Canada's seventh largest Census Metropolitan Area (CMA) and accounts for 58% of Manitoba's inhabitants. No other CMA contains so large a share of a provincial population. The only other CMA that comes close to this extent of concentration is Vancouver, where 48% of British Columbia residents live.

Between 1981 and 1986, Winnipeg's population rose 5.6%. This growth rate was somewhat slower than the average rate for all CMAs (5.9%) and for other Prairie cities: Saskatoon (14.6%), Regina (7.7%), Calgary (7.2%), and Edmonton (6.0%). Nonetheless, Winnipeg's growth

during the 1981-1986 period marked a change from the previous five years when the population had remained almost stable, rising only 1.1%.

An older population

Winnipeg's population tends to be slightly older than that of Canada as a whole. In 1986, 12% of Winnipeg residents were aged 65 or over, compared with 11% of all Canadians. At the other end of the scale, children under age 15 accounted for 20% of Winnipeg residents, but 21% of the total population of Canada.

Living arrangements

The fastest growing types of living arrangements for Winnipeg residents in recent years were lone-parent families and one-person households. This mirrored patterns in Canada overall.

Between 1981 and 1986, the number of lone-parent families in Winnipeg increased 18%. As a result, in 1986, 23,000 families in the city, 14% of the total, were headed by a lone parent. This compared with 13% of all Canadian families.

During the same period, the number of husband-wife families in Winnipeg increased only 7%. Nonetheless, they continued to constitute the vast majority of Winnipeg families, totalling 141,900 in 1986.

As well, the number of Winnipeg residents living alone grew rapidly. One-person households rose 9% from 56,000 in 1981 to 61,100 in 1986. People living alone accounted for 12% of all Winnipeg's population aged 15 and over in 1986; the corresponding figure for Canada was 10%. Also by 1986, more than a third (38%) of Winnipeg residents living alone were aged 65 or over.

Immigrants

The immigrant component of Winnipeg's population is larger than that of Canada overall. In 1986, 18% of Winnipeg's inhabitants were immigrants, compared with 16% of the total population.

The proportion of Winnipeg residents who were immigrants was about double the figures in Saskatoon and Regina (both 9%). Winnipeg's immigrant community matched proportions in Edmonton (18%) and Calgary (21%), but was much lower than in Toronto (36%) and Vancouver (28%).

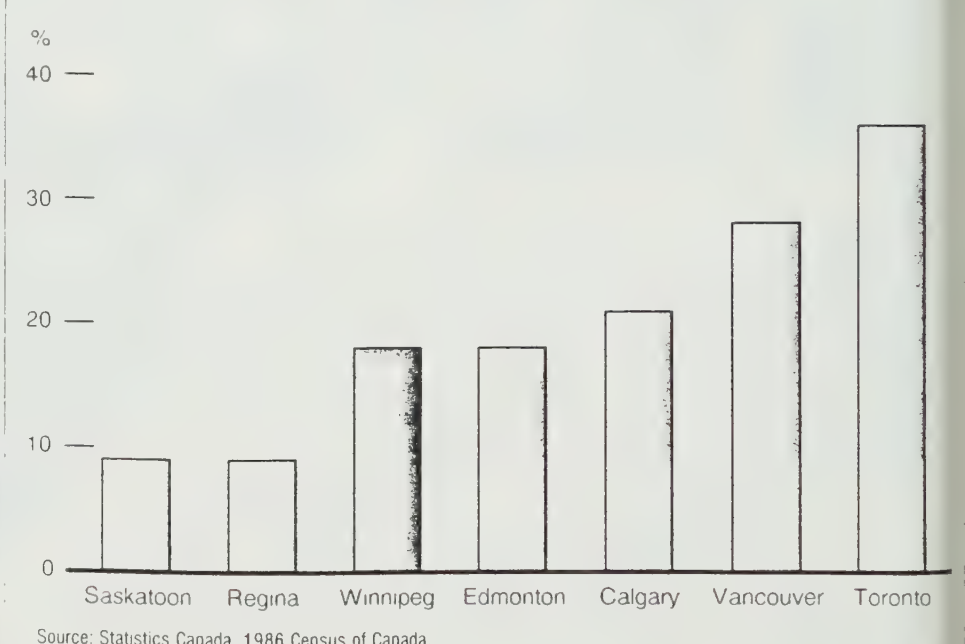
Ethnic mosaic

The number of immigrants in Winnipeg is reflected in a diverse ethnic make-up. Of Winnipeg residents claiming a single



CANADIAN

Immigrants as a percentage of population in Winnipeg and selected metropolitan areas, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

ethnic origin, 68% reported non-British roots. This was well above the 50% of all Canadians outside Quebec whose origins were non-British.

People of Ukrainian and German origins were the largest non-British ethnic groups, each accounting for 12% of the city's population. Another 9% of residents were of French origin, the same proportion as in all of Canada outside Quebec. Another 4% of Winnipeg inhabitants claimed Polish ancestry, and 4% reported Filipino roots.

Aboriginal groups, that is, people of North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit origin, made up 4.8% of Winnipeg's population in 1986. These groups constituted just 2.8% of all Canadians. The Aboriginal component of Winnipeg's population was higher than in Calgary (2.4%) and Edmonton (3.7%), the same level as in Regina (4.8%), but lower than in Saskatoon (5.3%).

Labour force participation rate

Labour force participation rates in Winnipeg are slightly above the national level. In 1986, 78.5% of Winnipeg men were in the labour force, compared with 77.5% of all Canadian men.

A somewhat larger difference existed between the labour force participation rates of women in Winnipeg and in Canada overall. While 59.3% of Winnipeg women were in the labour force in 1986, the comparable figure for all women was 55.9%. As well, among married women, the labour force participation rate in Winnipeg was 60.4%, compared with 57.2% for all Canada.

Income

Average incomes in Winnipeg are slightly lower than the national level. In 1985, average household income in Winnipeg was $33,477, compared with $34,261 for all Canadian households. Since 1980, however, the average household income in Winnipeg increased, whereas that in Canada overall declined. After adjusting for inflation, the Winnipeg figure was up 1%, in contrast to a 2% drop for Canada.

The incidence of low income is considerably higher in Winnipeg than in the rest of the country. While 14.8% of Winnipeg families were below the low-income cut-offs in 1985, the national proportion was 11.8%. Similarly, 41.7% of unattached individuals in Winnipeg were in the low-income category, compared with 34.6% of all unattached individuals.

Housing

Single detached homes are the most common type of residential dwelling in Winnipeg, as they are in Canada overall. In 1986, this type of dwelling accounted for 60% of the city's households, compared with 58% in Canada.

Living in highrise apartments is more common in Winnipeg than in Canada as a whole. Apartment buildings of five storeys or more accounted for 13% of Winnipeg's households in 1986, a proportion substantially above the national level (9%). The percentage of elderly household maintainers living in apartments was particularly high (27%) in Winnipeg, compared with all Canada (15%).

On the other hand, people in Winnipeg are less likely than Canadians overall to live in other types of multiple-unit housing or mobile homes. While such dwellings accounted for 27% of Winnipeg households, the comparable national figure was 34%.

Winnipeg's housing stock is comparatively old. Fully 65% of Winnipeg homes were built before 1971; for all Canada, the equivalent proportion is 59%. By contrast, just 8% of the residential dwellings in the city were constructed between 1981 and 1986, while another 27% had been built in the 1971-1980 period. The corresponding figures for all Canada are 11% and 30%.

A book about seniors and the ties that bind

Companionship and mutual assistance – these are the ties that bind seniors to family and friends. It's their "informal social support network" and you can read more about it in a ground-breaking study, *Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors: An Introductory Report of Findings from the General Social Survey.*

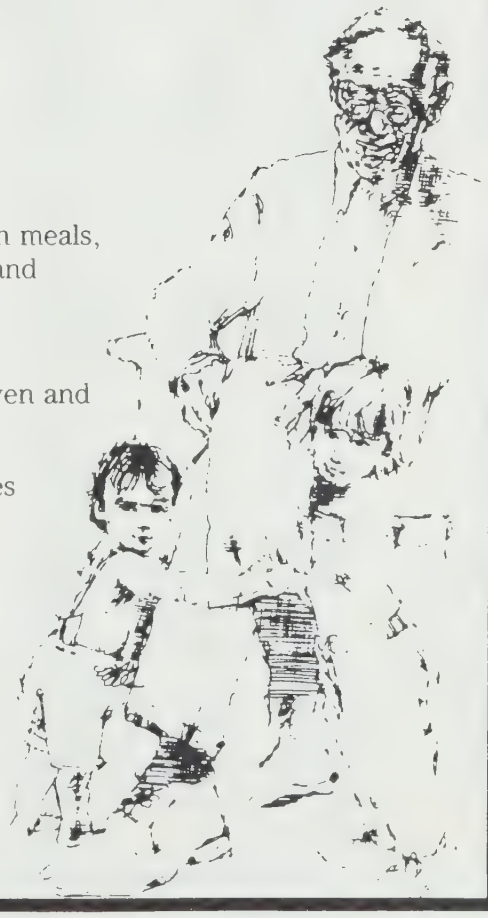
Find out...

☐ how seniors give help through volunteer work, donations, baby-sitting, housework;

☐ how seniors receive help with meals, shopping, money management and personal care;

☐ how age, sex and education influence the amount of help given and received; and

☐ how family and friendship ties affect seniors' health and happiness.



Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors, Catalogue No. 89-508 is available for $15 per copy (in Canada); $16 per copy (other countries) and can be ordered by writing or mailing the enclosed order form to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call 1-800-267-6677. All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada Publications. For more information about other Statistics Canada publications, contact a Regional Office near you.

ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1989

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employm popul
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	
1966[1]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	
1989	20,141	13,503	12,486	1,018	67.0	7.5	

[1] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to con to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,911.8	26,218.5[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2[p]
Immigration[1]	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898	159,919[p]
Emigration[1]	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003	40,967[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486
- goods sector (000s)	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740
- services sector (000s)	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745
Total unemployment (000s)	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018
Unemployment rate (%)	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5
Part-time employment (%)	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,110	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	*
% of families with low income	12.6	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.0	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,973.9	5,025.5[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education (1988 $000,000)	30,152.8	30,693.4	30,214.1	32,488.7	32,234.3	32,284.9	32,748.8	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	*	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	*	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	*	*
Government expenditures on health (1988 $000,000)	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,771.1	33,397.2	33,906.9	35,378.4	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	*
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	135,432.3	141,872.6	143,539.5	150,743.8	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.8	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.9	28.1	27.1	26.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0
Urban housing starts	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	*

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland – 1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or 1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or 1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or 1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or 1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or 1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or 1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or 1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia – 1-604-666-3691 or 1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia – Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price ($ Can.) In Canada	Price ($ Can.) Elsewhere
75-001	Perspectives on Labour and Income	$12.50	$15.00
93-104	Dwellings and Households: Part 1, 1986 Census of Canada	$33.00	$34.50
93-105	Dwellings and Households: Part 2, 1986 Census of Canada	$45.00	$55.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Canadian Society

Cat.No. 13-208 — Family Incomes: Census Families ($18/$22)

Cat.No. 89-510 — Immigrants in Canada: Selected Highlights ($38/$46)

Cat.No. 91-522 — Household and Family Projections: Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1986-2001 ($26/$31)

Business and Finance

Cat.No. 13-549 — National Income and Expenditure Accounts and Methods ($74/$89)

Cat.No. 15-001 — System of National Accounts: Gross Domestic Product by Industry ($121/$145)

Cat.No. 57-003 — Quarterly Report on Energy Supply-Demand in Canada ($121/$145)

Cat.No. 63-005 — Retail Trade ($168/$202)

Cat.No. 74-001 — Quarterly Estimates of Trusteed Pension Funds ($42/$50)

Government

Cat.No. 72-007 — Provincial and Territorial Government ($69/$83)

Cat.No. 88-204 — Federal Scientific Activities ($42/$50)

How do we spend over $7 billion a year to administer our Justice System?

How many Canadians are charged with impaired driving every year? What is the per capita cost of legal aid? How many police officers protect 26 million Canadians? These are the types of questions answered by **Juristat**.

Each issue gives you an analysis and detailed statistics on a different aspect of the justice system. **Juristat** provides you with data on law enforcement, legal aid, corrections, and adult and juvenile courts on national, provincial and territorial levels, as well as for selected major cities.



Thousands of individual justice-related agencies and departments provide the information.

A year's subscription gives you twelve issues of comprehensive, current and extensive justice-related information. Published by Statistics Canada, **Juristat** is a unique periodical, of great interest to anyone looking for information on Canada's justice system.

Get the facts.

A subscription to **Juristat** (Catalogue No. 85-002) is $37 in Canada, and $44 outside Canada.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

Government Publications

- 003 E

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E



ACCIDENTS ☐ VIOLENT CRIME ☐ HOME IMPROVEMENT

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada



ROCK SOLID INFORMATION

Get a focus on Canada's markets and business opportunities with **the** source of reliable information...Statistics Canada and its unequaled family of outstanding publications and services.

Relying on Statistics Canada means you're building your decisions on hard facts assembled by a professional organization with a world-wide reputation for scrupulous accuracy and complete reliability.

Join the thousands of corporations and individuals who base their Canadian business decisions on Statistics Canada publications. Year after year.

For more information on Statistics Canada's extensive range of publications and information services, please call toll-free 1-800-267-6677.

At Statistics Canada, we provide information you can build on.





over: ***Trackwalker*** painted by Horst Guilhauman, 984, oil on canvas. © Horst Guilhauman.

bout the artist:

orn in West Germany (1936), **Horst Guilhauman** ceived his initial education in graphic arts in ermany. Mr. Guilhauman immigrated to Canada 1967 and has established himself as a leading xponent of realistic painting in Canada. His work story-telling at its best, as he captures his subcts in their own intimate environment. He curntly resides in Eganville, Ontario.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

No. 17 - SUMMER 1990

CONTENTS

Home Improvement 2
by Janet Che-Alford

The Demographic Future 5
by Gordon Priest

Violent Victimization 10
by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

Homicide 14

Policing in Canada 18
by Johanna Ewins

Accidents 22
by Wayne Millar and Owen Adams

Secretaries 25
by Carol Strike

Time Use of the Elderly 28
by Marion Jones

Changes in Educational Attainment 32
by George Mori and Brian Burke

Social Indicators 34

1989 Annual Index of Articles — Winter Issue, Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Illustrations — Laurie LaFrance. Photos — Photo Centre, SSC
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	V. Beaulieu, S. Bouchard, H. Champion, R. Chaplin, J. Frederick, S. James, K. Kennedy, J. Lacroix, M. Lisciotto, H. Moses, K. Nessner, U. Nevraumont, E. Praught, C. Prévost, C. Richard, J. Turner, G. Villeneuve

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Industry, Science and Technology. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1990, all rights reserved. First class postage Canada paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends**, 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the Minister of Supply and Services Canada. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698



HOME IMPROVEMENT

by Jarret Che Alford

Repairs and renovations are realities of homeownership. In fact, to some degree, most Canadian homeowners are involved in these activities, either to maintain or upgrade their housing investment.

Almost three-quarters (71%) of homeowners reported making expenditures on repairs and renovations in 1988. These outlays amounted to a total of $11.1 billion. Moreover, this did not include the value of the labour involved in work homeowners did themselves.

The repairs and renovations undertaken in 1988 were diverse, ranging from small wallpapering jobs to installation of in-ground swimming pools. As well, costs varied widely from less than $100 for caulking and weatherstripping to many thousands of dollars for major structural alterations.

In general, projects can be classified in five major categories: repairs and maintenance; replacement of built-in equipment and fixtures; additions; renovations and alterations; and new installations of built-in equipment and fixtures.

Repairs and maintenance most common

Homeowners' most common expenditure was for repairs to or maintenance of their property. In 1988, 57% of homeowners spent money to maintain an existing structure or piece of equipment in good condition.

The repair/maintenance task undertaken most often was interior or exterior painting, with 41% of homeowners reporting such expenditures. Wallpapering was also relatively frequent (16%).

Worn out?

Replacing equipment was the second most common expenditure, reported by 22% of homeowners in 1988. This involved replacing existing installations or converting one type of equipment to another, for example, replacing an electric hot water heater with a gas-fuelled unit.

The equipment most often replaced was plumbing fixtures, reported by 10% of homeowners. As well, 6% replaced carpets, and 5% replaced electrical equipment and fixtures. Just 2% of homeowners replaced built-in appliances.

A new look

Renovations and alterations were undertaken by 21% of homeowners in 1988. These projects entailed work done to

upgrade the property, such as rearranging interior space, remodelling rooms, and modernizing existing facilities.

Renovations and alterations were more likely to be made on the interior than the exterior of the home. Close to 12% of homeowners reported expenditures for interior work only, compared with 7% for exterior work only. Jobs involving both were reported by 4% of homeowners.

Additions

In 1988, 19% of homeowners reported making additions to their property. Additions consisted not only of structural extensions to the dwelling, but also garages and carports and features added to the grounds such as landscaping, fences, patios, driveways, and in-ground swimming pools.

Landscaping (8%) and fences, patios or driveways (7%) were the most common projects in this group. On the other hand, fewer than half of 1% of homeowners reported expenditures for in-ground swimming pools.

Something new

New installations were the jobs homeowners were least likely to undertake, with just 14% reporting such expenditures in 1988. New installations are equipment that previously was not on the property, for example, heating or air-conditioning units, built-in appliances, and carpeting.

Electrical fixtures and equipment, and heating/air-conditioning units ranked first among all types of new installations (4%).

Spending varies

Homeowners making repair and renovation expenditures in 1988 spent, on average, $2,600. Spending, however, varied substantially by the type of project.

Renovations and additions were the most costly undertakings, which, in part, explains the relatively small proportions of homeowners reporting these activities. In 1988, homeowners with expenditures on renovations spent, on average, $3,140, while those reporting additions spent an average of $2,380.

New installations were less expensive, averaging $1,220, and the average cost of replacing equipment was $960. Amounts spent on repair and maintenance tended to be the smallest, averaging just $660.

Do it yourself?

Homeowners were more likely to incur expenditures for materials than for contract work, which includes labour as well as materials. While 57% of owners reported spending on materials, the figure for contract work was 41%.

The cost of jobs varied according to how the work was done, with contract work being more expensive. For those who spent money on repairs and renovations in 1988, the average outlay for contracts was $2,860, compared with $1,170 for materials alone.

Specific jobs

Installation of an in-ground swimming pool was, by far, the most expensive home repair/renovation job. In 1988, the average expenditure for a swimming pool was $12,670.

The cost of a garage or carport was also relatively high. Homeowners making such additions paid an average of $4,390.

Average spending on other major jobs such as a structural extension, interior or exterior renovation, or a new roof was in the $2,000-$3,000 range.

Fences, patios, and driveways were much cheaper, requiring an average outlay of $1,320. Landscaping expenditures were also relatively low, averaging $730.

The average amount homeowners spent for painting in 1988 was $250, and for wallpapering, $180. The outlay for caulking and weatherstripping was $70.

An ounce of prevention

Home repairs and maintenance tended to be less expensive than replacements or new installations.

In 1988, 9% of homeowners paid an average of $130 to repair or maintain their heating or air-conditioning equipment. By contrast, 4% of homeowners had new installations, at an average cost of $1,840, and 3% replaced this type of equipment, for an average of $1,330.

Similarly, for the 3% of homeowners who repaired their electrical fixtures or equipment, costs averaged $190. On the other hand, 5% of homeowners paid an average of $390 for replacements, and 4% paid $330 for new installations.

The average cost of repairing or maintaining plumbing fixtures was $210 for the 6% of homeowners who made these expenditures. Replacements were undertaken by 10% of homeowners and cost an average of $440. Just 2% of homeowners installed new plumbing, at an average cost of $920.

It takes money[1]

High-income households were more likely than those at lower income levels to make repairs and renovations, and they tended to spend more.

Selected home improvements, 1988

	% of homeowners reporting expenditures	Average $ (homeowners reporting expenditures)
Painting	40.7	254
Wallpapering	15.9	175
Interior renovation	11.9	2,521
Landscaping	8.4	725
Caulking/weatherstripping	8.3	71
Fence/patio/driveway	7.4	1,316
Exterior renovation	7.2	1,988
Structural extension	6.2	3,064
New heating/air conditioning	4.1	1,841
Complete re-roofing	3.3	2,305
New carpeting	2.6	996
New plumbing fixtures	2.3	923
Garage/carport	1.3	4,388
In-ground swimming pool	0.3	12,669

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-201.

[1] Data about the characteristics of homeowners and their dwellings refer only to owners who lived in that home for at least the entire reference year.

In 1988, 76% of homeowners whose household income was $70,000 or more made repairs and renovations and spent an average of $3,750. By contrast, 58% of homeowners with household incomes less than $15,000 undertook such projects, and they paid an average of about $1,580.

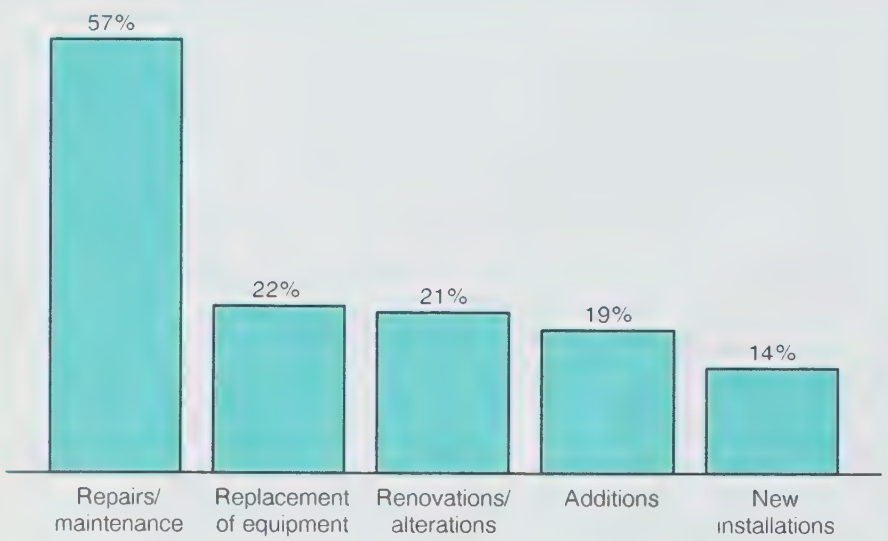
Improving upon perfection

The likelihood of making repairs and renovations was higher among owners of more expensive homes. And as dwelling value increased, so did the average expenditure. This pattern, however, largely mirrored income.

In 1988, 70% of owners of dwellings worth $200,000 or more undertook repairs and renovations, and their average expenditure amounted to almost $3,570. On the other hand, 66% of those in homes worth less than $50,000 made repairs and renovations, and their costs averaged about $1,920.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

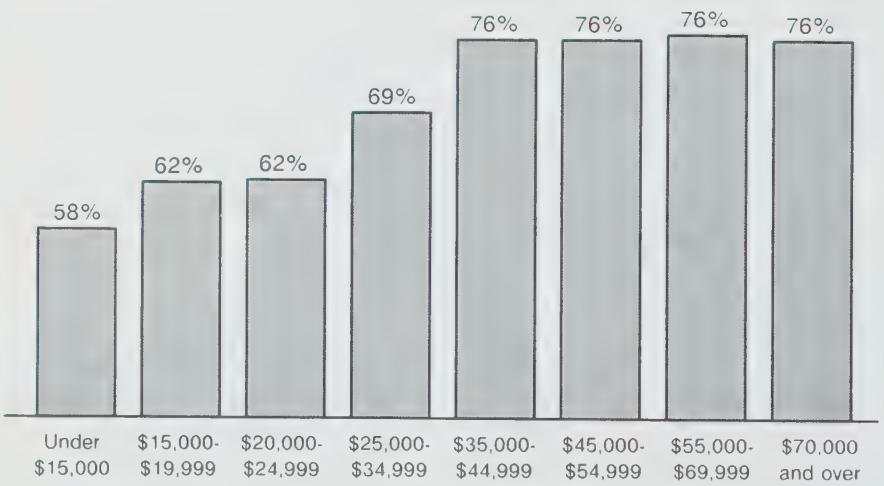
Homeowners making home improvement expenditures, by type of project, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-201.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Homeowners making home improvement expenditures, by household income, 1988[1]



[1] Includes only those who resided in their dwelling for at least the entire year (1988).
Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, special tabulations.

A baby boom phenomenon

Young homeowners were more likely than those in older age groups to make repairs and renovations. Almost 81% of household maintainers younger than 35 reported expenditures on these activities in 1988. Participation dropped steadily in successively older age groups to 61% among homeowners aged 65 and over.

Among household maintainers who made repair and renovation expenditures in 1988, spending was highest at ages 35-54: their average bill was around $2,800. Those under age 35 spent the next highest average amount ($2,740). For older age groups, expenditures were lower: $2,140 for 55-64-year-olds and $1,830 for household maintainers aged 65 and over.

As well, homeowners' focus of spending changed at different ages. In 1988, young owners spent 32% of their repair and renovation budget on additions, whereas such projects accounted for only 19% of the spending of homeowners aged 65 and over. Elderly homeowners, on the other hand, devoted 30% of their expenditures to repairs and maintenance, compared with just 18% for homeowners under age 35.

Old home/new home

Contrary to common expectation, the likelihood of repairs and renovations did not vary substantially by the age of a dwelling. However, the amount spent differed sharply, depending on the period of construction, with average costs highest for the oldest homes.

Expenditures were highest for homes built before 1941, averaging $3,220. On the other hand, the lowest average expenditure – $2,110 – was made by owners of homes built in the 1971-1980 period. At $2,780, average spending on homes built after 1980 was relatively high. However, this included features that the owner rather than the builder adds to a new house such as fences, landscaping, and patios.

Janet Che-Alford *is Chief of the Family, Housing and Household Section with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

THE DEMOGRAPHIC FUTURE

by Gordon Priest



Demographically, the Canadian population will be much different in the next century. Life expectancy is increasing, and fertility continues to be low, particularly in Quebec. The Canadian population is aging and will likely begin to decline in size early in the next century. Dramatic increases in immigration levels are, consequently, the key policy lever for preventing the decline or increasing the size of the Canadian population.

These demographic facts give rise to four issues of policy concern: the needs of the elderly population; the education of smaller cohorts of children and future labour force participants; the survival of the French language and culture in Canada; and the integration into Canadian society of people with diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

The elderly

A major implication of low fertility and increased life expectancy is the changing age structure of the Canadian population. Older people constitute a growing share of the total population, while the proportion of young people is declining. In 1971, people aged 65 and over comprised 8.2% of the population. By 1986, this figure had risen to 10.7%, and by the year 2001, is projected to be 14%. This dramatic growth in the proportion of older people will be fuelled by the baby boom generation as it ages.

At successively older ages, women increasingly outnumber men, because of gender-based mortality differences. Due to differences in life expectancy, most men die while still married, whereas most women die as widows. Traditionally, daughters have cared for these aging parents, their mothers in particular. But with fewer young people, and women increasingly in the labour force, children of older parents are less likely to be in a position to care for an aged parent.

An increasing number of elderly people now live alone or in institutions. This trend is expected to continue into the next century.

From 1971 to 1986, the proportion of people aged 75 and over living alone increased from 26% to 38% for women, and from 13% to 17% for men. If these trends continue, by the year 2001, the number of men and women aged 75 and over living alone will have increased by a further 285,000 to close to 600,000 people.

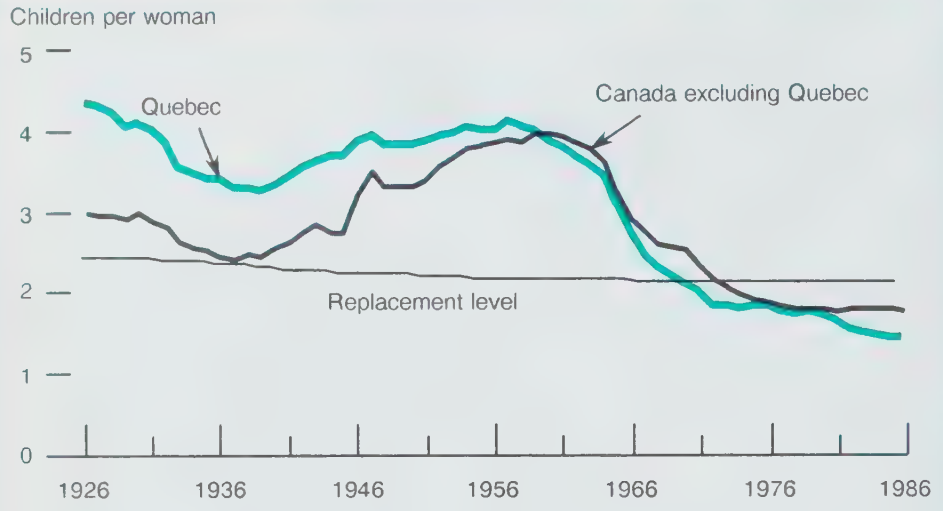
The proportion of people aged 75 and over living in institutions increased over this same period from 14% to 20% for women, and from 9% to 12% for men. Continuation of this trend will result in an increase of the elderly population living in institutions from 143,000 to 318,000 by 2001.

These trends in the elderly population have implications for housing. For instance, this population may well require or desire special purpose or custom-built housing or perhaps continue to utilize large family homes. Finding accommodation for the increasing number of elderly people living in institutions amounts to the equivalent of, in the space of fifteen years, finding new and highly specialized accommodation for the present population of a city the size of Saint John, Sherbrooke, or Thunder Bay.

On the other hand, a growing number of couples are reaching old age together.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Total fertility rate, Quebec and rest of Canada, 1926-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada and Bureau de la Statistique du Québec, annual vital statistics; estimates by Réjean Lachapelle, see **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1988.



n the past, few couples ever entered the empty-nest stage. Because of the extended period of child-bearing and the resultant large family size, one or both parents often died before the last child left home. Today, despite the delayed age of women at first birth, and even despite a recent delay in the age when children leave home, fewer births mean that couples can anticipate perhaps some twenty years as empty-nesters.

Evidence points to a new affluence among the elderly, thanks to pension improvements, and the retirement of couples with not one, but two pensions. There may be a demand among this segment of the elderly population, particularly the "younger" elderly, for "lifestyle" housing with an emphasis on recreation, leisure, and travel.

Inevitably, this burgeoning of the older population will have implications for the provision of geriatric care, and especially health care, since the maladies of older people differ from those of young people. As well, the retail and food industries may face changing demands for consumer goods and for innovations in such things as food packaging; new opportunities for the service sector could also present themselves.

Education of the young

Because of the smaller number of children being born, cohorts of labour force participants in the next century will likely decrease in size. Education of these young people may well be Canada's key to remaining competitive in an increasingly technological world.

A large number of Canadian children, however, are economically disadvantaged. Many may lack the opportunities and financial ability to afford an education to prepare them for the highly skilled labour force of the future.

In 1988, more than 15% of all Canadian children under age 16 lived in families below the low-income cut-offs, down from 19% in 1985 but the same as in 1981. This meant that in 1988, 875,000 Canadian children were living in families with low incomes, compared with 1,047,000 in 1985, and 885,000 in 1981.

Children in lone-parent families are particularly likely to be in the low-income category. In 1988, 58% of children in lone-parent families were below the low-income cut-offs, down from 64% in 1985 and 57% in 1981. However, a growing number of Canadian children are growing up in lone-parent families. In 1988, 628,000 children under age 16 were in lone-parent families, compared with 571,000 in 1985 and 500,000 in 1981.

Nonetheless, most children in low-income families are in two-parent families. In 1988, 55% of all low-income children were in two-parent families, down from 62% in 1985 and 64% in 1981.

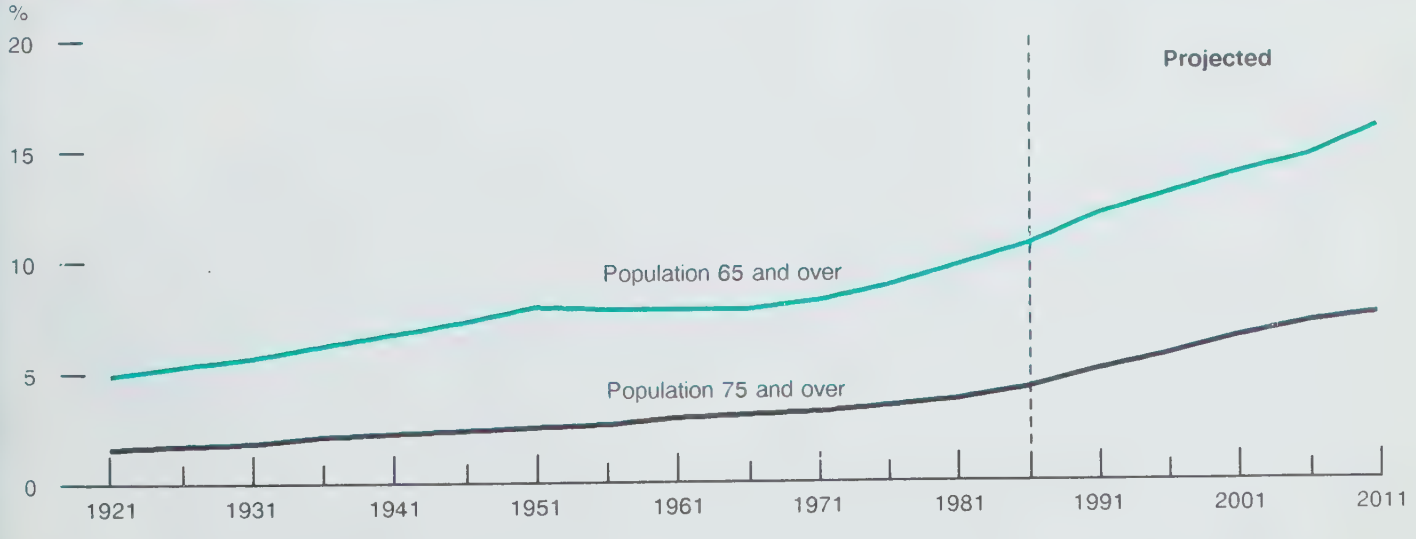
Access to Canadian postsecondary educational institutions may be problematic for an increasing number of Canadian youths. If present trends continue, the 1990s will see proportionately fewer children than in recent decades, with relatively more living in economically disadvantaged families. Given these trends, provision of universal access to higher education, regardless of ability to pay, may be one way to meet the demand for an increasingly skilled and educated labour force. This solution, however, will not be easy in a deficit-conscious society already aware of the monetary and fiscal implications of providing for the special needs of a growing number of elderly people.

Survival of the French language and culture

Perhaps nowhere else in Canada is there greater concern about declining population than in Quebec, where fertility has fallen below the national level. The total fertility rate (the average number of births a woman can be expected to have over her lifetime) for Quebec stood at 1.4 in 1989, compared with 1.7 for Canada as a whole. Moreover, between 1981 and 1986, Francophone fertility fell below Anglophone fertility in Quebec and in the rest of Canada. Lower fertility will considerably alter the number and proportion of Francophones in Canada and North America. The relatively rapid decline in Francophone fertility will likely lead to a much earlier onset of absolute population decline among Francophones, and in Quebec. Immigration of large numbers of Francophones to Canada may help stem this projected decline, but the gravitational mass of English-speaking North

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Actual and projected[1] elderly population as a proportion of total Canadian population, 1921-2011



[1] Assumes total fertility rate = 1.7, net migration = 64,000, constant mortality.
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished data.

America is great, and its power to assimilate new immigrants is considerable. Many Francophone immigrants might be assimilated into the larger English-speaking community, or alternatively, change or displace the unique North American French culture.

Integrating new Canadians

Since World War II, people born outside Canada have comprised 16% of the population. In the past decade, net migration has accounted for an average of 22% of Canadian population growth. Future migration will play an even more important role in population change if current mortality and fertility patterns continue.

While the origins of immigrants to Canada have varied considerably over the years, until the 1970s the majority of immigrants came from Europe. Since then, most immigrants have been Middle Eastern, Asian, Caribbean, Indo-Pakistani, and South American.

Characteristics of the Canadian population of the future will reflect those of today's immigrants. Recent changes in the ethnic and religious composition of Canada reflect the changing patterns in origins of immigrants over the past few decades.

If policymakers turn to immigration to offset low fertility, it is unlikely that migration from Western Europe will be increased. Low birth rates have existed there for some time, and many of these countries already have experienced absolute population declines and shortages of workers. Political changes in Eastern Europe could lead to an upturn in European migration to Canada. However, for the foreseeable future, it seems likely that the majority of immigrants will continue to come from the Middle East, Asia, and South America.

Into the future

Demographically, Canada has changed significantly in the past twenty years. The baby boom generation is aging, and fertility has fallen dramatically. The prospect of a population decline exists. The needs of the economy may well dictate an increase in levels of immigration, unless technology and automation change the rules. Europe is no longer the prime source of immigrants, and thus, new immigrants will come not only with diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, but with a wide range of religious and cultural beliefs, traditions, values, and customs. This will change the nature of needed services from various Canadian institutions. Technology may affect the need for job skills to the degree that education will become a lifelong pursuit, not just that of the young. Concerns about the survival of the French language and North American French culture will continue.



Gordon Priest *is Director of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

A number of articles in previous issues of **CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS** have dealt with demographic topics. These include:

Canada in the 21st Century	Summer 1986
Children in Low-Income Families	Winter 1986
Low Income in Canada	Spring 1987
Increased Life Expectancy, 1921-1981	Summer 1987
1986 Census Highlights: Aging of the Canadian Population	Winter 1987
Changes in Fertility Among Canada's Ethnic Groups	Autumn 1988
Income of Canada's Seniors	Autumn 1988
Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly" Population	Autumn 1988
1986 Census Highlights: Changes in Living Arrangements	Spring 1989
Ethnic Origins of the Canadian Population	Summer 1989
Canada's Immigrant Population	Autumn 1989
South Asians in Canada	Autumn 1989
Help Around the Home: Support for Older Canadians	Autumn 1989
Residential Care	Autumn 1989
Hospital Care in the 21st Century	Winter 1989

The following Statistics Canada publications also offer more detail on demographic trends in Canada:

	Catalogue No.
Women in Canada: A Statistical Report	89-503E
Family and Friendship Ties Among Canada's Seniors	89-508
The Seniors Boom: Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Prospects for Better Health	89-515E
Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada 1986	91-209E
Fertility in Canada from Baby-boom to Baby-bust	91-524E
Canada's Population from Ocean to Ocean	98-120
Canada's Seniors	98-121
Ethnic Diversity in Canada	98-132



What happened to the cost of living last month?

The Consumer Price Index will tell you.

Whether you negotiate wage settlements, administer COLA clauses in labour contracts, assess government policies or are involved in renewal contracts, child support or alimony payments, you need current and detailed information on changes in the cost of living.

Compiled monthly (and published within 20 days of the month's end), **The Consumer Price Index** gives you a precise account of the latest fluctuations in consumer prices.

This monthly publication covers:

- transportation
- food
- clothing
- housing
- health and personal care
- recreation, reading and education
- tobacco products and alcoholic beverages

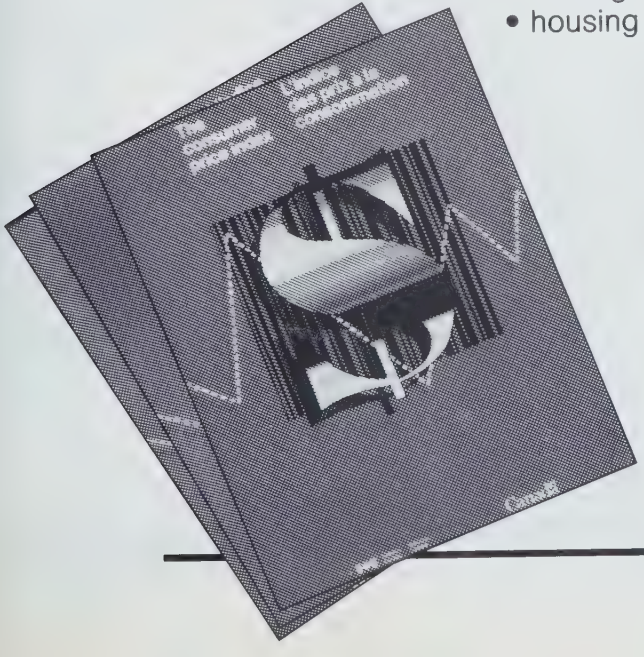
Over 400 items, ranging from milk to parking, household furnishings to reading material, are included.

Price indexes are presented nationally and for 18 major Canadian cities. In each issue you receive month-to-month percentage comparisons and trends over the last five years. And each issue analyzes the main causes of change.

Get the facts.

Subscribe to **The Consumer Price Index** (Catalogue No. 62-001) for the authoritative measure of the purchasing power of the Canadian consumer dollar. A subscription to this monthly is available for $93 in Canada, US$112 in the United States and US$130 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.



For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

VIOLENT VICTIMIZATION

by Vincent Sacco and Holly Johnson

When asked which crimes are of greatest concern, Canadians are most likely to say an attack or those involving the threat of violence. Four out of ten people cite violent assault as the crime they fear most. Overall, about one-quarter of Canadians feel unsafe walking alone at night in their own neighbourhoods.

For a substantial number of people, these fears were realized in 1987. According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS), an estimated 1.7 million incidents of assault, robbery, and sexual assault were committed that year. In the majority of these violent victimizations, offenders and victims were acquainted; about a fifth of incidents involved family members. Weapons were present or used in one in five incidents. Half of all assaults happened in a private residence, while robberies were more common in a public place.

The General Social Survey

The third cycle of the General Social Survey (GSS), conducted early in 1988, asked Canadians about their experiences with certain crimes during 1987 and their perceptions of crime and the criminal justice system.

A representative sample of 10,000 adults was interviewed. From these interviews, estimates were made for the population aged 15 and over. By counting both incidents that were and were not reported to the police, the GSS provides information not available from police records.

Assault most frequent

In 1987, incidents of assault, robbery, and sexual assault reported to the GSS worked out to a rate of 83 per 1,000 people aged 15 and over. There were 68 assaults per 1,000 adults, while the rate of robbery or attempted robbery was 13 per 1,000. The reported number of sexual assaults was too small to produce reliable estimates. The sensitive nature of this crime may have resulted in some underreporting, even in a confidential interview.

Physical attacks

Violent victimization may be a threat of violence or an actual attack; the majority of victims, however, were directly attacked. In 1987, 65% of violent incidents (74% of robberies and 62% of assaults) involved a physical attack.

A weapon (including a gun, knife, or something functioning as a weapon such as a rock or bottle) was present or used in 20% of violent incidents. Weapons were more commonly used in robberies (28%) than assaults (19%).

Of those incidents in which a physical attack occurred, a majority of victims (67%) reported being hit, kicked, slapped, or knocked down. In a somewhat smaller proportion (42%) of incidents, victims reported being grabbed, held, tripped, or pushed.[1]

Victims received medical attention in 15% of incidents involving a physical attack. As well, 21% of attacks caused the victims to experience some difficulty conducting their normal activities. In half these incidents, the impairment lasted one day; in one-quarter, the difficulty persisted two or three days; and in another quarter, four or more days.

Victimization highest in west

The risk of violent crime tended to be greater in the west than in the east. In 1987, British Columbia residents reported the highest rate of violent victimization with 157 incidents per 1,000 adults. The rate in the Prairies was also relatively high (111), while rates in Ontario (83) and the Atlantic Region (86) were close to the national level. By contrast, Quebec residents reported the lowest rate of violent victimization at 33 incidents per 1,000 adults.

Violent victimization rates were higher in urban than in rural areas. The rate among urban dwellers in 1987 was 88 per 1,000 adults, while for rural residents, it was 68.

Young men most at risk

Men experienced higher rates of violent victimization than did women. In 1987, the overall rate of violent victimization for men was 90 per 1,000, compared with 77 per 1,000 women.

This pattern held for both assault and robbery. The rates of assault and robbery among men were 74 and 17 per 1,000, respectively. The comparable rates among women were 63 assaults and 10 robberies.

Young people, and particularly young men, were at greatest risk of violent victimization. There were 214 incidents per 1,000 men aged 15-24, and for women in this age range, 161.

While men were generally more likely than women to be victims of violence, this was not the case at ages 25-44. The victimization rates were 97 incidents per 1,000 women in this age group and 88 per 1,000 men.

Canadians aged 45-64 reported a much lower rate of violent victimization: 23 per 1,000. The number of violent incidents among those aged 65 and over was too small to produce reliable estimates.

High rate among separated/divorced

Victimization rates of men and women varied according to their marital status. Separated and divorced women reported higher rates of violent victimization than other women. Also, their rate was higher than that of men in any marital status category.

In 1987, the rate of violent victimization was 265 per 1,000 separated or divorced women.[2] By contrast, the level was 140 for single women and 45 for married women.

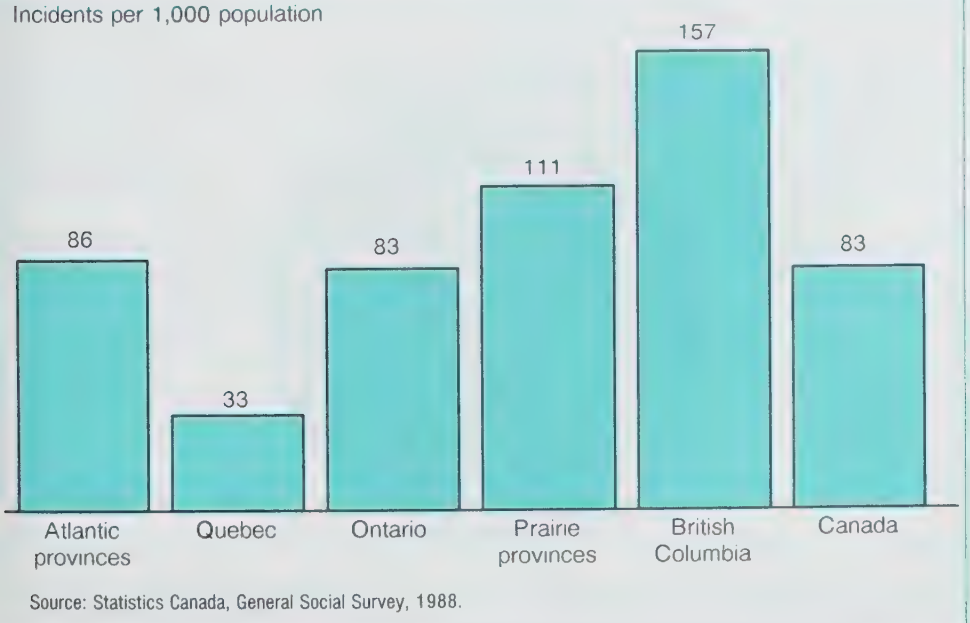
The rate of violence against men was highest for those who were single (190 per 1,000). The rate for married men was 45 per 1,000, while the number of separated or divorced male victims was too small to produce reliable estimates.

Acquaintances and relatives

Most victims of violent crime that occurred in 1987 knew their assailants. In nearly two-thirds of the incidents, victims

CANADIAN

Violent victimization rate, by region, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

[1] Each incident could involve more than one type of attack.

[2] See also Holly Johnson, "Wife Abuse," **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1988, pages 17-20, and Eugen Lupri, "Male Violence in the Home," **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1989, pages 19-21.

reported some familiarity with the offenders: 41% of incidents involved an acquaintance, and a further 22%, a relative. Strangers were involved in 30% of incidents. In the remaining 7%, victims did not provide a description.

Victims of assaults were much more likely to know the offender than were victims of robbery. Assailants were known in 65% of assaults, but just 52% of robberies.

High risk at home

Violent incidents most often occurred in a private residence, usually the victim's home. Overall, about half of victimizations happened in a private residence: 40% in the victim's home and 8% in another dwelling. Public places accounted for 25% of incidents; restaurants and bars, 8%; and other commercial establishments, 18%.

Assaults were especially likely to take place in a private residence. In 1987, private homes were the location of 50% of all assaults. Robbery, on the other hand, was more frequent in public places (42%) than in private homes (36%).

Night life

Lifestyle appears to expose certain groups to increased risk of victimization. People who engaged in many evening activities outside the home had particularly high rates of violent victimization.

In 1987, women involved in more than 30 evening activities a month were victimized more often than equally active men. There were 184 violent incidents per 1,000 women engaged in more than 30 evening activities a month, compared with 175 for men with this level of activity. Men and women who participated in fewer than 10 activities a month had much lower victimization rates at 35 and 26 per 1,000, respectively.

Young men and women involved in a large number of evening activities had exceptionally high rates of violent victimization. The rate was 281 violent incidents per 1,000 men aged 15-24 who participated in 30 or more night-time activities; among young active women the rate was 211.

Alcohol consumption

Violent victimization was also associated with alcohol consumption. The victimization rate was 220 incidents per 1,000 people who consumed 14 or more drinks a week. On the other hand, the rate was 48 violent incidents per 1,000 non-drinkers.



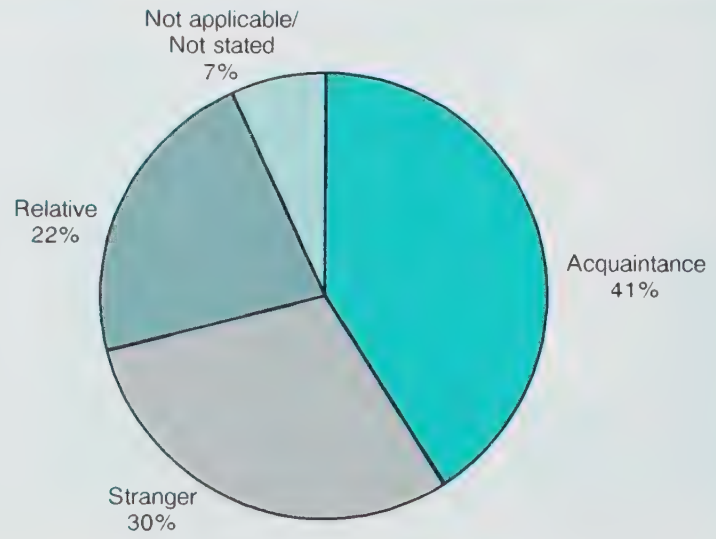
Risk was especially great among young adults who were heavy drinkers. The violent victimization rate was 532 incidents per 1,000 people aged 15-24 who consumed 14 or more drinks a week.

A private matter

Most violent incidents that occurred in 1987 did not come to the attention of the police. The police found out about just 31% of those victimizations. The like-

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Relationship between assailants and victims of violent incidents, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

ihood that incidents would be reported was about equal for male and female victims.

Although young people have the highest rate of violent victimization, such incidents were least likely to be reported to the police. The police learned of just 20% of attacks against 15-24-year-olds, compared with 37% of those against people aged 25-44, and 60% against people aged 45-64.

Victims' major reasons for not reporting were that the incident was too minor (cited by 65% of victims who did not report) and that it was a personal matter (63%). As well, more than half of victims said that they did not want to get involved with the police (57%) and that the police could not do anything about the incident (54%). About one in five (21%) was deterred from reporting by the fear of revenge by the offender.

When incidents were reported, it was usually the victim who did so. Two-thirds of the attacks that came to the attention of the police were reported by the victim, while the remainder were reported by someone else or detected by the police themselves.

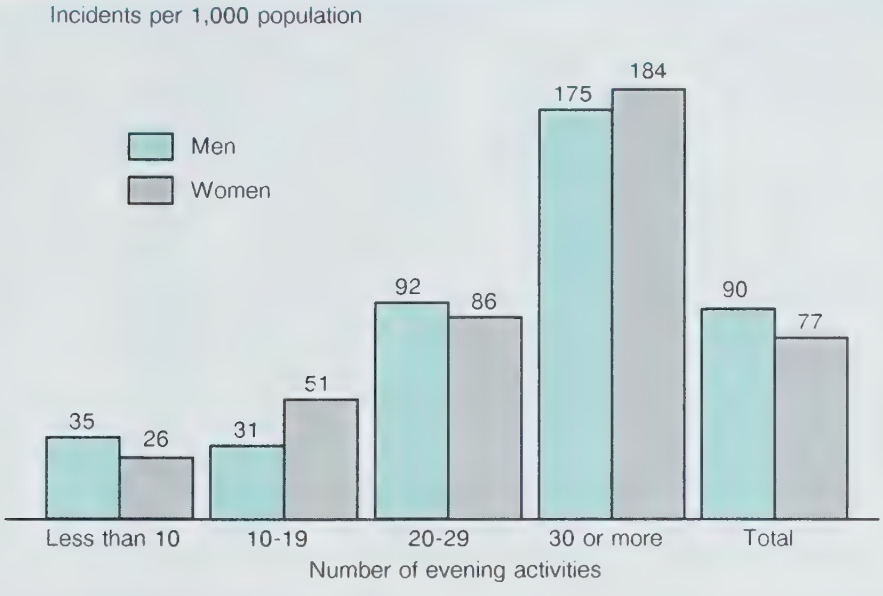
The main reasons given by victims for reporting a violent incident were to stop it or prevent a recurrence (87%), to catch and punish the offender (73%), and to receive protection (68%).

Women were more likely than men to seek police assistance to stop or prevent further violence (94% compared with 81%). As well, more women than men cited protection as a reason for reporting (82% versus 54%). By contrast, the desire to catch the offender more frequently motivated men than women (80% versus 65%).

Few victims contacted a support agency for advice or assistance. In fact, victims approached support agencies in just 10% of cases of victimization. However, in over half (56%) of incidents, victims did not know that such assistance was available. Of those incidents involving victims who were aware of the existence of support agencies, the victims' main reason for not seeking help was that they believed it was unnecessary (64%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

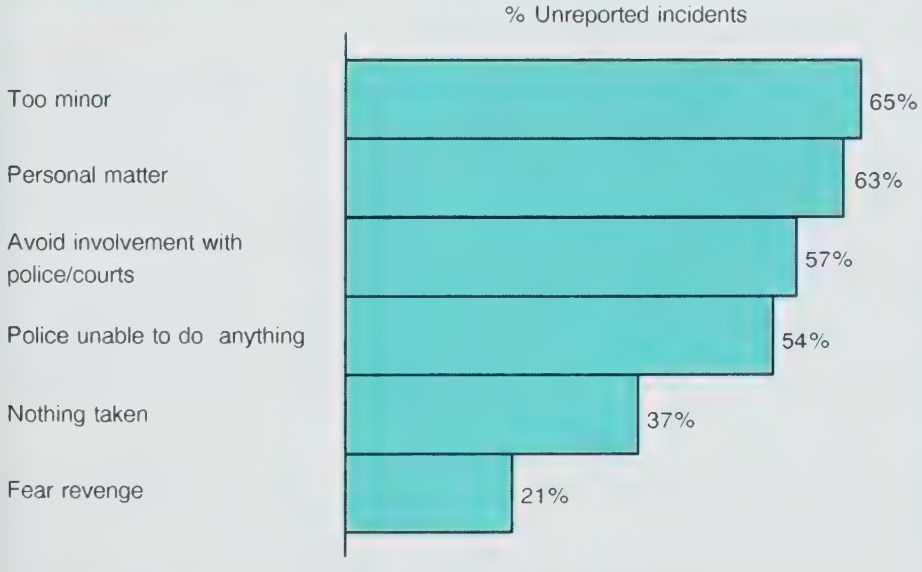
Violent victimization rate, by sex, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Reasons[1] for not reporting violent incidents to police, 1987



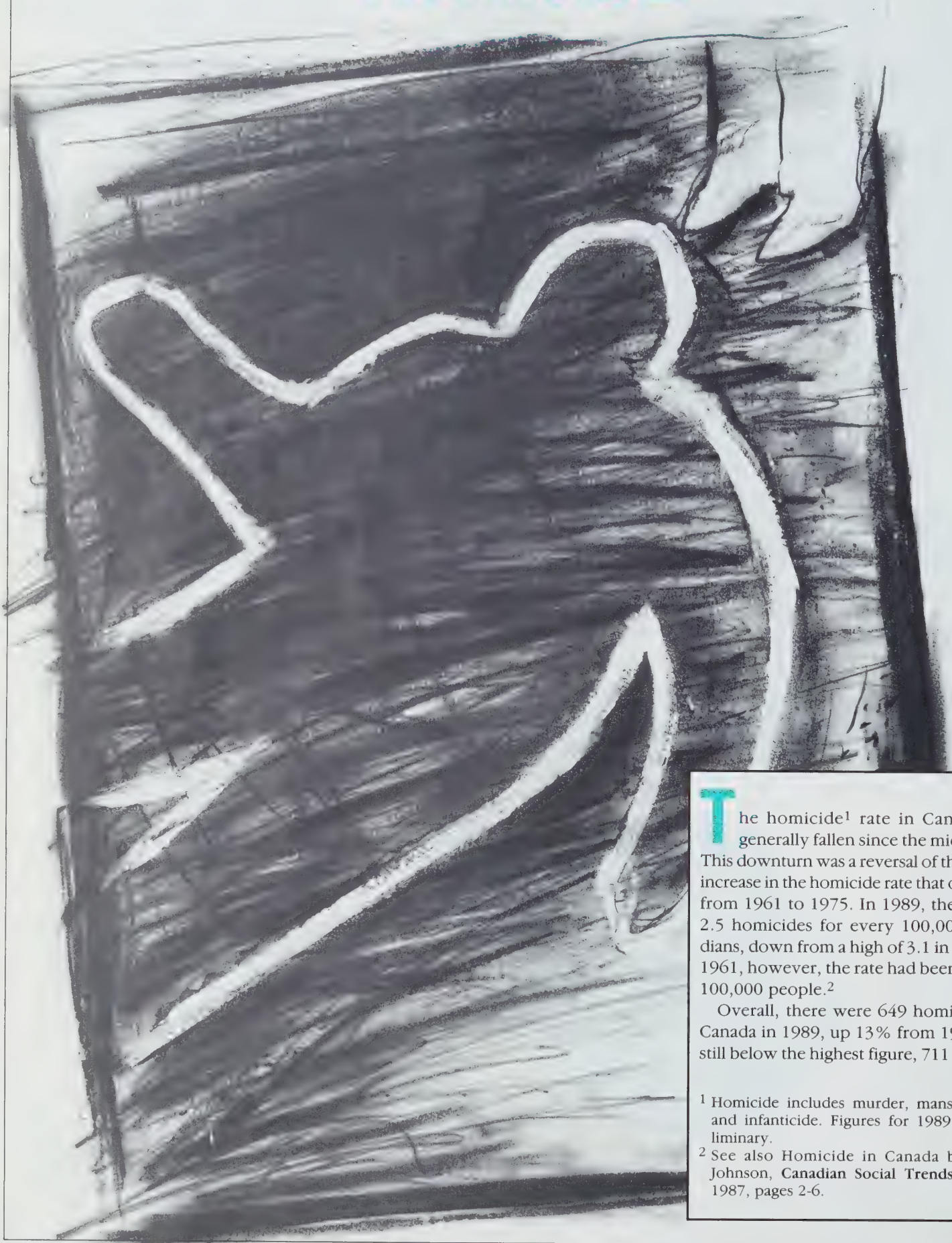
1 Victims could give more than one reason.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

Precautions

Relatively large proportions of Canadians who were victims of violent crime took safety precautions during 1987. Fully 43% of victims of violence changed their daily activities, compared with 21% of the population who had not been victimized during the survey year. One-third of people who had suffered violent victimization installed home security devices such as locks or alarm systems; the proportion was 20% among those who were not victimized. As well, 14% of victims of violence changed their telephone numbers, and 9% took self-defense courses; the corresponding figures for people not victimized were 4% and 2%, respectively.

Vincent Sacco *is Head of the Department of Sociology at Queen's University;* **Holly Johnson** *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

HOMICIDE



The homicide[1] rate in Canada has generally fallen since the mid-1970s. This downturn was a reversal of the steady increase in the homicide rate that occurred from 1961 to 1975. In 1989, there were 2.5 homicides for every 100,000 Canadians, down from a high of 3.1 in 1975. In 1961, however, the rate had been 1.3 per 100,000 people.[2]

Overall, there were 649 homicides in Canada in 1989, up 13% from 1988, but still below the highest figure, 711 in 1977.

[1] Homicide includes murder, manslaughter, and infanticide. Figures for 1989 are preliminary.

[2] See also Homicide in Canada by Holly Johnson, **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1987, pages 2-6.

Homicide rates highest in west

As with other violent offenses, homicide rates in Canada are generally highest in the Western provinces. In 1989, Manitoba had the highest provincial rate, with 4.0 homicides for every 100,000 residents. Rates in British Columbia (2.9) and Alberta (2.7) were also relatively high, as was that in Quebec (3.2).

The same year, there were 2.5 homicides per 100,000 residents in New Brunswick, 2.2 in Saskatchewan, and 1.8 in Ontario. The rate in the other Atlantic provinces ranged from 1.7 per 100,000 people in Nova Scotia to 0.8 in Prince Edward Island and 0.7 in Newfoundland.

In 1989, the homicide rates in the Northwest and Yukon Territories, at 11.2 and 7.9 per 100,000 population, respectively, far exceeded the national level.

Homicide rates varied considerably in different Census Metropolitan Areas. Montreal and Edmonton had the highest homicide rates of any major urban areas. In 1989, there were 4.2 homicides for every 100,000 residents in Montreal and 3.9 in Edmonton. Winnipeg (3.2) and Vancouver (3.1) also had relatively high rates.

In contrast, rates were low in Sudbury (0.7), Thunder Bay (0.8), and Saskatoon (1.0), while there were no homicides in St. John's in 1989.

Not strangers

Most homicides involve people who know each other. In 43% of homicides solved in 1988, the victims and suspects were acquainted, and in another 36%, the parties were in a domestic relationship. Only 21% of incidents involved people who did not know each other.

Suspect/victim relationship

Female homicide victims are far more likely than men to have been killed by an immediate family member. In 1988, 57% of all female homicide victims were killed by a family member, whereas the figure for men was 24%.

As well, husbands were far more likely than wives to have murdered their spouse. In 1988, 70 women were killed by their husband, compared with 21 men who were killed by their wife. Still, the number of husbands who murdered their wives in 1988 was one of the lowest in the last ten years.

Most suspects/victims men

Historically, the majority of homicide suspects have been men. In fact, in 1988, 89% of all homicide suspects were men.

People aged 18-29 make up the largest share of both men and women suspected of committing homicide. In 1988, 47% of male and 43% of female suspects were in this age range. Another 22% of male and 31% of female suspects were in their thirties.

Males also make up the majority of homicide victims. In 1988, they made up 65% of homicide victims, while females accounted for 35%. The proportion of female victims has remained stable at around 35% since the early 1970s. During the 1960s, however, they made up over 40% of homicide victims.

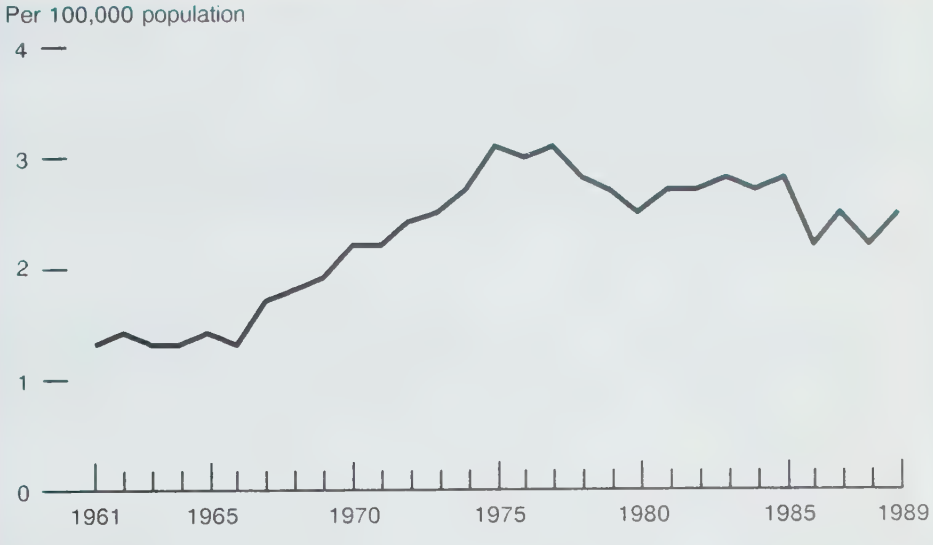
As well as accounting for the largest share of suspects, people aged 18-29 also made up the largest proportion of homicide victims. In 1988, 27% of male victims were in this age group, as were 33% of female victims.

Home setting

Most homicides are committed in the victim's home. In 1988, 50% of all homicides took place in the victim's residence (which may also have been the

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

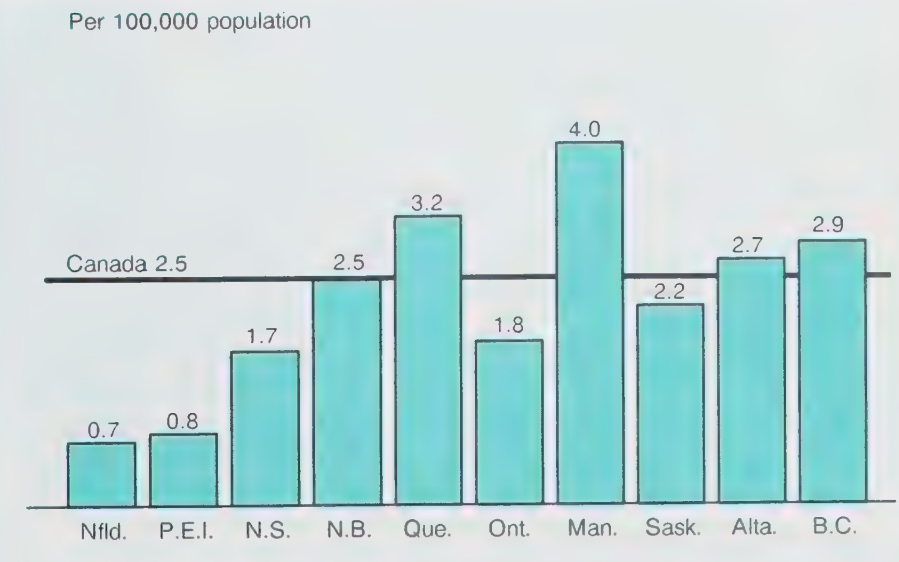
Homicide rate, 1961-1989



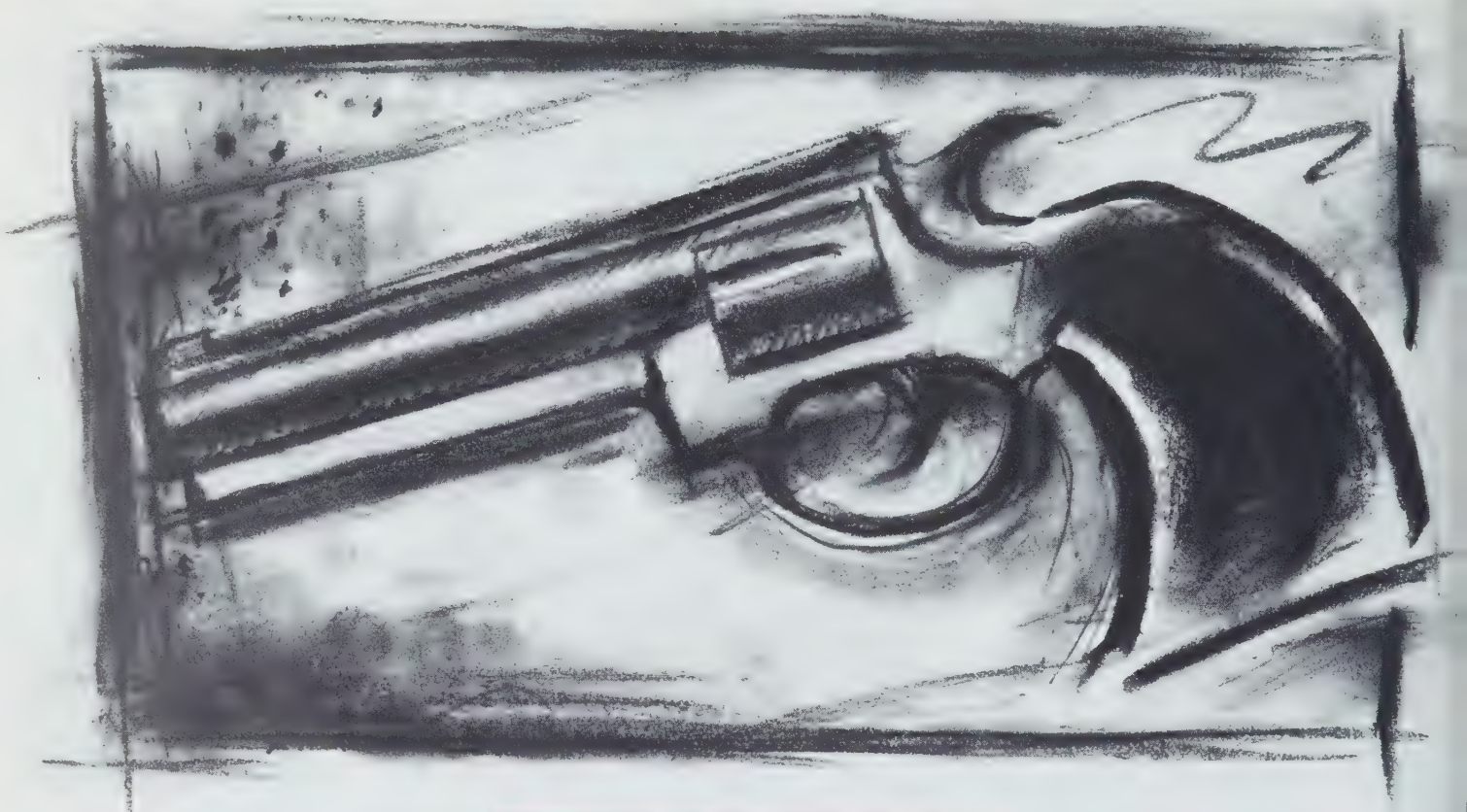
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Homicide rate, by province, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.



home of the suspect). Another 9% occurred in the suspect's residence.

Another 18% of homicides happened in a public place, and 12% at work or in a private setting other than the home of the victim or suspect. In addition, 1% of all homicides occurred in a correctional institution, while 3% happened in other places. The site of the remaining 8% of homicides was not known.

Homicide by guns down

The proportion of homicides involving firearms has fallen in recent years. In fact, since gun control legislation was enacted in 1978, the proportion of homicides involving firearms decreased from almost 40% to fewer than 30%. Overall, the number of shooting homicides fell from 250 in 1978 to 169 in 1988.

During the same period, the number of homicides resulting from stabbings increased. In 1988, there were 167 stabbing homicides, up from 146 in 1978. As a result, in 1988, stabbings accounted for the same proportion of homicides as did shootings (29%).

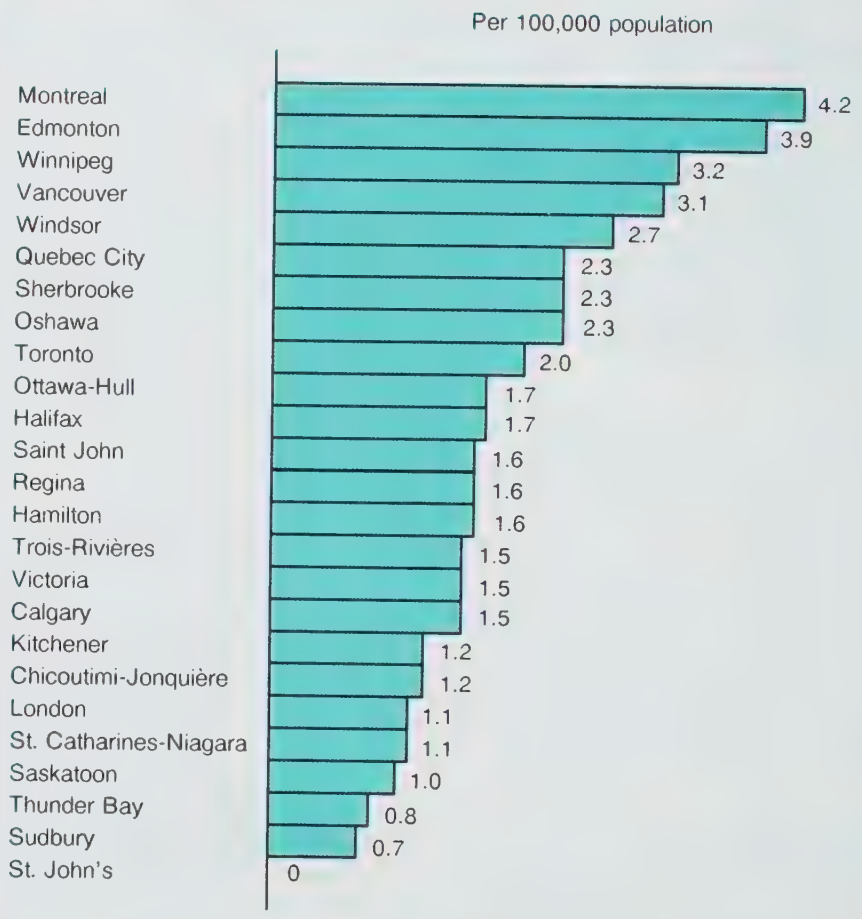
Homicides during another criminal act

In 1988, approximately 19% of all homicides occurred during commission of another crime. This was the highest proportion since 1982, when 20% of all homicides involved other crimes.

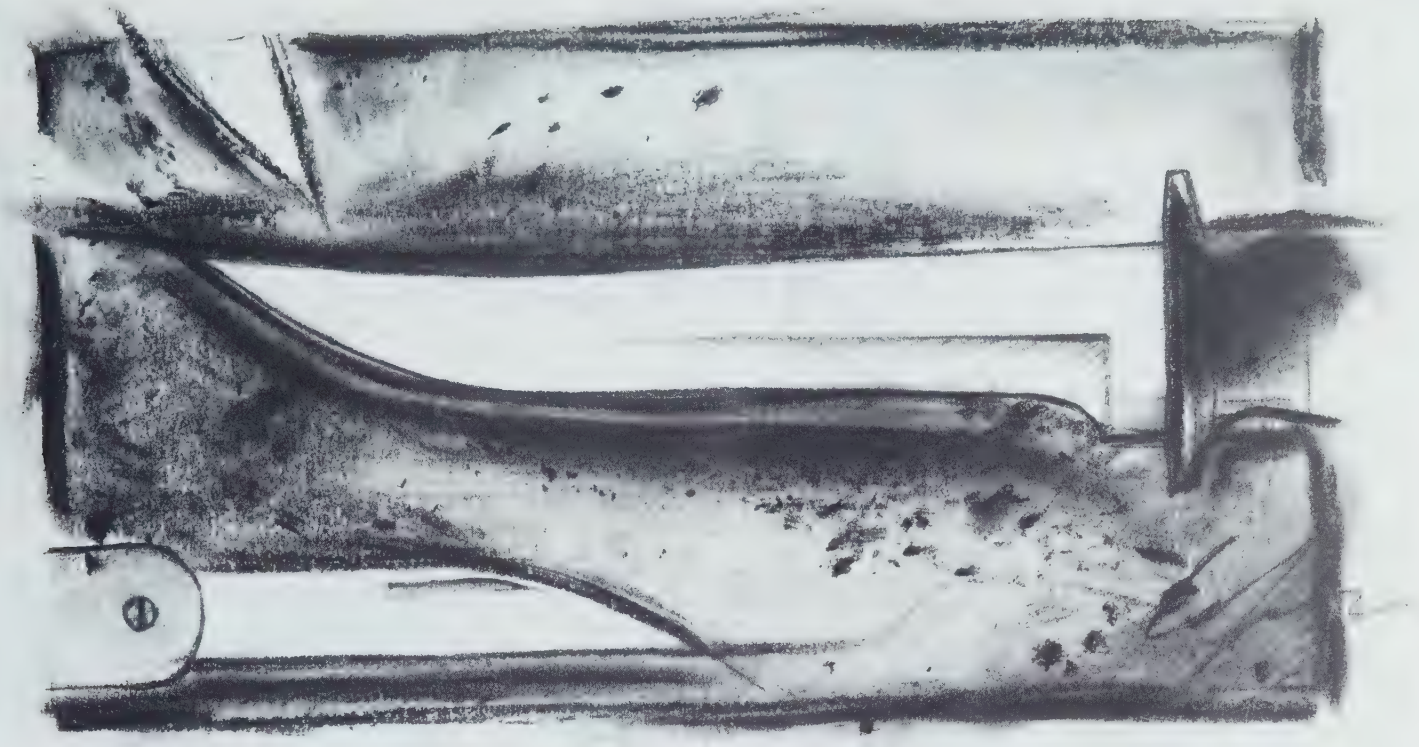
Robbery, theft, and break and enter accounted for the majority of criminal acts that resulted in a homicide. In 1988, 71%

CANADIAN Social Trends

Homicide rate, by Census Metropolitan Area, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.



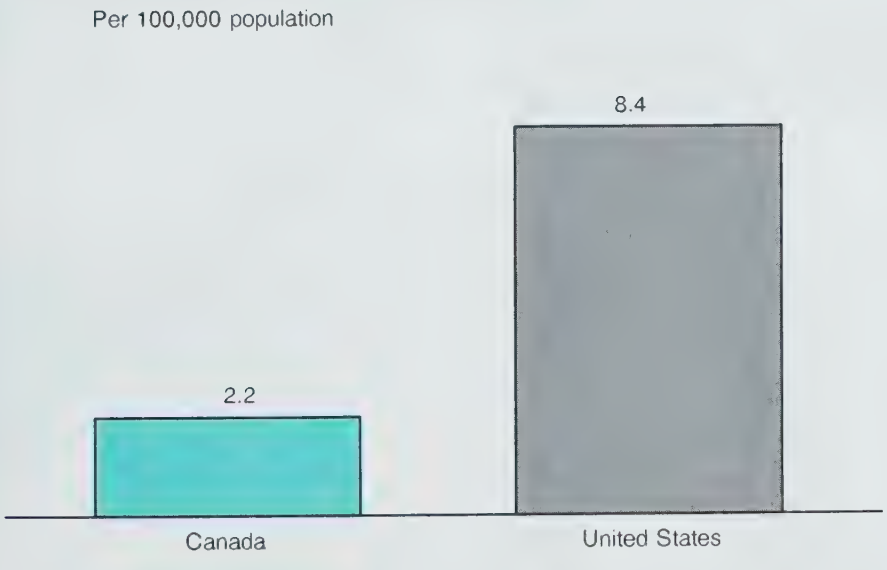
Homicide in Canada and the United States

Historically, the American homicide rate has been several times greater than that in Canada. In 1988, the homicide rate in Canada was 2.2, compared with 8.4 in the United States.

However, recent trends in the two countries have differed. Whereas Canada's homicide rate has declined since the mid-1980s, it has risen in the United States.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Homicide rate, Canada and the United States, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209.

of all homicides that occurred during commission of another criminal act involved one of these offenses. Homicides committed during a sexual assault made up another 24%.

Murdered while on duty

Between 1961 and 1989, 98 police officers were murdered while on duty. These incidents accounted for 0.7% of all homicides during this period.

For the second consecutive year, no police officers were murdered while on duty in Canada in 1989. Since such statistics were collected (1961), this is the longest period of time in which no officers have been killed. The last on-duty police officer to be murdered was in March of 1987.

For the fourth consecutive year, no correctional staff were murdered while on duty in 1988. Since 1961, 17 on-duty staff members of correctional institutions have been murdered.

- *The information in this article was supplied by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada. Additional information on homicide in Canada is available in Statistics Canada Catalogue 85-209. Further information may be obtained by calling (613) 951-0647.*

POLICING IN CANADA

by Johanna Ewins

The number of police in Canada has risen substantially since the early 1960s. Most of this increase, though, occurred before 1975. Growth since then has been relatively slow.

The number of police officers per person is also higher now than during the 1960s. This ratio, however, varies considerably by province, with the Atlantic region having fewer police per person than the rest of Canada.



Police increase slowing

The number of police officers[1] in Canada has climbed since the mid-1970s, but at a much slower pace than in previous years. In 1988, there were 53,300 police in Canada, up 12% from the 1975 count of 47,700. However, the 1975 total was an 83% increase over 1962 when there had been 26,100 police officers.

Police officers per 100,000 population

The number of police per 100,000 population in 1988 (206) was almost one and a half times greater than in 1962, (141). The increase, however, did not occur uniformly throughout the two and a half decades.

The 1960s and early 1970s witnessed a sharp climb in the number of police per 100,000 population. This ratio peaked in 1975, when there were 210 police officers for every 100,000 population, up considerably from 141 in 1962.

By the mid-1980s, the ratio had slipped slightly to 200 officers per 100,000 population. However, by 1988, the figure had almost recovered, reaching 206.

[1] This figure excludes private security guards and investigators, military police, Ports Canada Police, Canadian National and Canadian Pacific Railway Police, and Special Constables.

Provincial variation

The four Eastern provinces have fewer police per capita than the rest of Canada. Prince Edward Island had the lowest ratio with just 140 police officers per 100,000 residents. In contrast, there were 214 police officers per 100,000 population in Ontario and 207 in Quebec. Rates in the four Western provinces were also relatively high, at 175 in Alberta and about 190 in the three remaining provinces.

Non-police personnel

Since the early 1960s, the number of civilians and other personnel involved in policing such as cadets and special constables has more than tripled. In 1988, these non-police personnel numbered 19,000 up from 5,700 in 1962. Most of this growth had occurred by 1982.

Civilians, who more and more have taken on duties once performed by police officers, and other non-police personnel now make up a much larger component of total personnel than in the 1960s. Since 1982, they have made up about 26% of total personnel, up from 18% in 1962, and 22% in 1975.

Few women, visible minorities, and Aboriginal people

While women continue to account for a small percentage of all police officers, their representation is increasing. In 1988, 5% of all police were women, up from under 1% in the early 1970s. During the 1960s, the proportion of women remained fairly static at less than 1%.

According to the 1986 Census, few police officers are members of visible minority groups. In 1986, 1% of police were from these groups, whereas people with these origins made up 6% of all workers.

The representation of Aboriginal people on police forces, however, was the same as that among workers overall. In 1986, 2% of police had Aboriginal origins, the same proportion as among all workers.

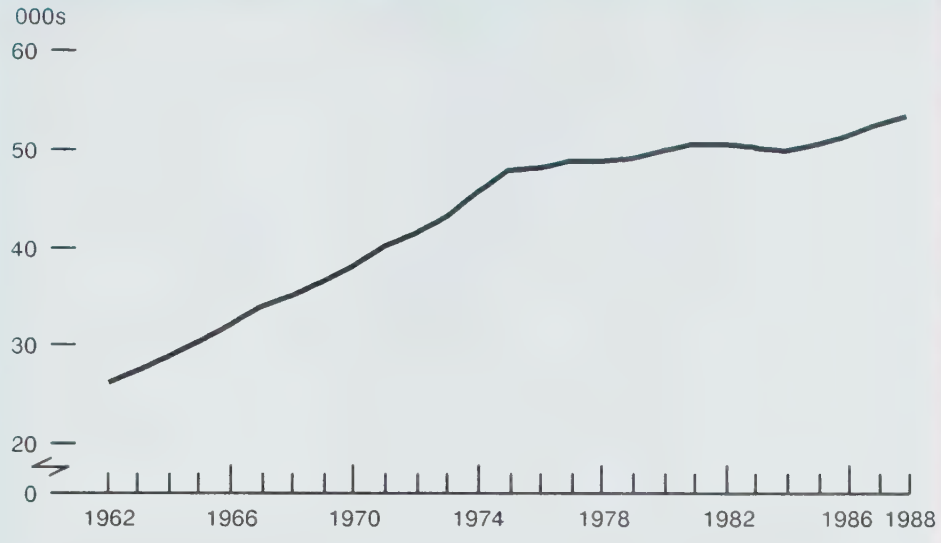
Middle-aged men, younger women

According to the 1986 Census, the average age of police in Canada was 37.3 years. However, men tend to be older than women in this occupation. In 1986, the average age of policemen was 37.6 years, compared with just 31.6 years for women.

Male police officers are concentrated in a higher age bracket than other male workers. In 1986, 52% of policemen were aged 35-54, compared with 38% of all men in the labour force.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

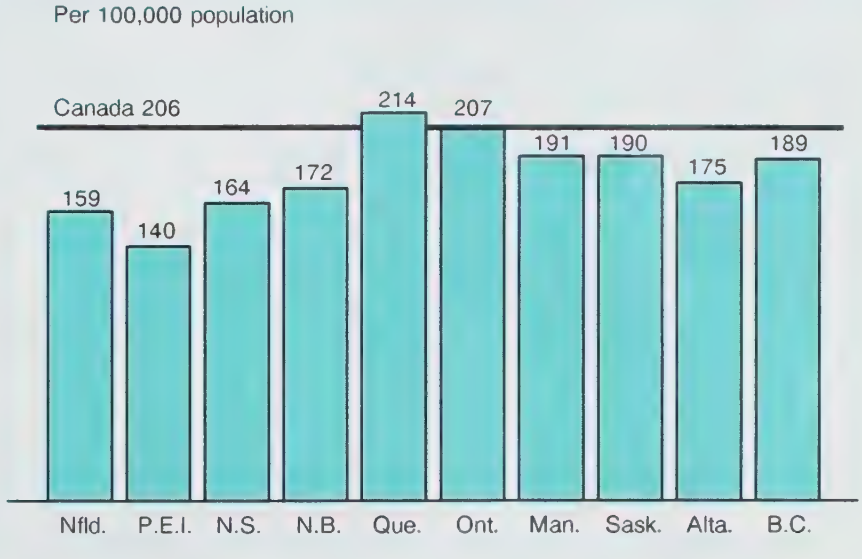
Number of police officers, 1962-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Police officers, by province, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002.

On the other hand, female police officers tend to be concentrated in a younger age range than working women overall. In 1986, 73% of women in the police force were aged 15-34, whereas this age group made up 53% of the total female labour force.

As is the case with the labour force overall, relatively few police were aged 55 and over in 1986. That year, just 6% of policemen and 4% of policewomen were in that age range.

RCMP recruiting

The RCMP are currently attempting to recruit greater numbers of visible minorities and Aboriginal people, as well as women. Through its National Recruiting Team, the RCMP are working to increase the proportion of visible minorities to 6% and the proportion of Aboriginal people to 3% by the year 2003. Total representation of women is targeted for 20% by the year 2013.





Education

Most police officers have attended post-secondary educational institutions. In 1986, 66% of police officers had at least some training beyond high school, compared with 48% of the labour force overall. However, whereas 6% of police were university graduates, the comparable figure for the labour force was 12%. On the other hand, while just 15% of police had not completed high school, the figure for the labour force was 35%.

Income

According to the 1986 Census, the average employment income of police working full-time for the whole year was considerably higher than the average for all comparable workers. The average 1985 employment income of police working full-time all year was $36,900, compared with $26,800 for all workers.

Policemen earned more, on average, than did policewomen. This is likely due, in part, to women's relatively recent entry into the occupation and their more limited police experience. In 1985, policewomen's average earnings amounted to 79% that of policemen: $29,400 compared with $37,300. However, this ratio was much higher than for the labour force overall. The employment income of all women working full-time year-round was 65% that of comparable men: $20,000 versus $30,600.

Expenditures on policing

Overall, expenditures on policing amounted to $4.4 billion in 1988. That year, costs for policing worked out to an average of $169 per person. Per capita costs varied considerably by province, from $174 in Quebec to $105 in Prince Edward Island.

Most police spending goes toward salaries. In 1988, salaries, wages, and benefits accounted for 82% of all costs. Operating expenditures accounted for the remainder.

Municipal policing (including RCMP and provincial police contracts) accounted for the largest portion of expenditures, at 53% in 1988. Provincial costs followed at 30%, with federal costs making up 9%. The remaining 8% was accounted for by other RCMP expenditures.

Police system in Canada

Policing in Canada is the responsibility of the municipal, provincial, and federal governments. In 1988, municipal policing, including Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) and Ontario Provincial Police municipal contracts, accounted for 63% of all police officers in Canada. Provincial policing, including RCMP contracts, made up another 26%, while RCMP federal policing accounted for 6% of Canada's police. RCMP administrative and Canadian Police Services represented the remaining 5%.

Municipal police are responsible for enforcing the Criminal Code, Provincial Statutes, and Municipal By-Laws in their jurisdiction. In most provinces, legislation requires that municipalities over a certain size (1,500 to 5,000, depending on the province) maintain their own (either independent or contract) police force. For smaller jurisdications, establishing a municipal force is optional, and policing tends to be performed as part of provincial (rural) policing. All provinces except Newfoundland, Quebec, and Ontario have some RCMP municipal contract policing.

Provincial police officers enforce the Criminal Code and Provincial Statutes in rural areas not under the authority of municipal police. Ontario and Quebec have their own provincial police forces. In the other eight provinces, the RCMP provide provincial contract policing. In Newfoundland, provincial policing is shared with the Royal Newfoundland Constabulary.

Federally, the RCMP, under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Solicitor General, are responsible for enforcing Federal Statutes and for providing protective services and airport and native policing. They are also solely responsible for policing in the Yukon and Northwest Territories.

Johanna Ewins *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

ACCIDENTS

by Wayne Millar and Owen Adams



During the course of a year, about one in five Canadians is involved in an accident.[1] Most commonly, these are traffic accidents, although substantial proportions are sports- or work-related.

While the majority of accidents result in injury, these injuries are usually not serious enough to require an overnight hospital stay. Nonetheless, accident victims account for a substantial number of disability days.

Five million accidents

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, close to 3.8 million Canadians aged 15 and over were involved in 5.1 million accidents in 1987. Accident victims made up 19% of the adult population: 14% had one accident, and 5% had two or more.

At most ages, men were more likely than women to have an accident. Young men were especially accident-prone. In 1987, 41% of men aged 15-24 had an accident, while the proportion for women that age was 25%. The comparable figures were 24% and 15%, respectively, for 25-44-year-old men and women. The proportions for 45-64-year-old men and women were almost the same, at 11% and 10%.

[1] An accident that restricted normal activity for at least half a day or resulted in personal expenses of $200 or more.

Contrary to the pattern for people between the ages of 15 and 64, elderly women were more likely than elderly men to have an accident. In 1987, 9% of women aged 65 and over were involved in an accident, compared with 5% of men. This difference is partly due to the older age distribution of elderly women compared to elderly men.

Motor vehicle accidents most prevalent

Motor vehicle accidents were the most common type of mishap in 1987, accounting for 33% of the total. Another 23% were sports accidents, and 21% were work-related. Home accidents made up 13%, while there was not enough information to classify the remaining 10%.

Regional variations

The age-standardized accident rate for Canada in 1987 was 254 accidents per 1,000 population. Accident rates, however, differed across the country, with levels generally higher in the west.

British Columbia had the highest rate, with 424 accidents per 1,000 population. Rates were also above the national level in the Prairie provinces (313). By contrast, accident rates were below the national average in Ontario (244), Quebec (171), and the Atlantic provinces (202).

Motor vehicle mishaps accounted for the largest proportion of accidents in most regions. This percentage ranged from 29% of accidents in British Columbia to 35% in Ontario and Quebec, and 36% in the Prairies. The exception was the Atlantic region where traffic accidents made up just 24% of the total, while sports accidents accounted for 30%.

Accidents and alcohol

The risk of having an accident was higher among people who consume alcohol than among non-drinkers. Fully 42% of current drinkers (those who consume an alcoholic beverage at least once a month) reported that they were involved in at least one accident during the three years from January 1985 to January 1988. The corresponding figures were 34% for occasional drinkers (those who consume an alcoholic beverage less than once a month) and 27% for non-drinkers.

Moreover, the frequency of accidents was related to increased alcohol consumption. While 56% of drinkers who averaged 14 or more drinks in a typical week had an accident in the three-year period, the proportion was 51% among those who consumed 7-13 drinks, and 40% for those who had fewer than 7 drinks.

As well, heavy drinkers were more likely than others to have been involved in more than one accident. Between 1985 and 1988, 32% of those who averaged 14 drinks or more during the course of a week had more than one accident. In contrast, the proportion for non-drinkers was 10%.

Injuries and financial loss

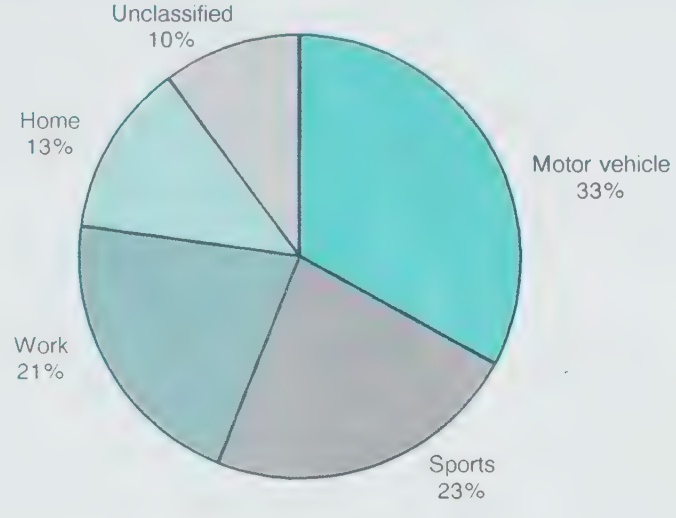
In 1987, 79% of accidents resulted in injury. However, while virtually all work, sports, and home accidents caused injury, this was the case for just 42% of motor vehicle accidents.

Work accidents tended to have the most serious health consequences. Almost two-thirds of people involved in work accidents were treated in a hospital: 9% as in-patients and 56% as out-patients. As well, 95% of work accidents caused some activity loss.

By contrast, about one-quarter of traffic accidents resulted in hospital treatment:

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

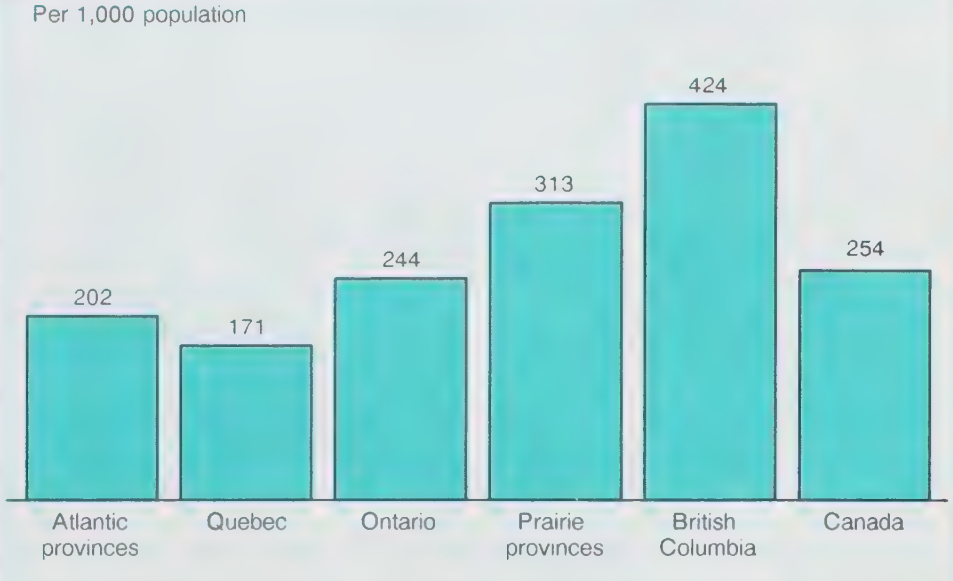
Type of accident, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Accident rate, by region, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

7% involved hospital admission, and 16%, out-patient care.

Traffic accidents, however, were most likely to entail financial loss. In 1987, 66% of motor vehicle accidents caused a financial loss, compared with 38% of work accidents, 23% of home accidents, and 19% of sports accidents.

Bruised and battered

The most frequent injuries resulting from accidents were dislocations, sprains, and bruises, which occurred in 34% of all accidents in 1987. Another 14% involved cuts or scrapes. Broken bones were reported in 9% of accidents. Just 4% of accidents were poisonings, and 3%, burns or scalds. As well, 8% of accidents caused more than one injury.

People aged 65 and over were more likely than younger people to be injured. In 1987, 86% of accidents involving the elderly resulted in injury. The proportions were lower for accidents among younger people, varying from 80% of those in which 15-24-year-olds were involved to 76% of those involving people aged 45-64.

Elderly accident victims were also admitted to hospital more frequently than younger people. In 1987, 14% of accident victims aged 65 and over received treatment as in-patients, compared with 7% of those younger than 65.

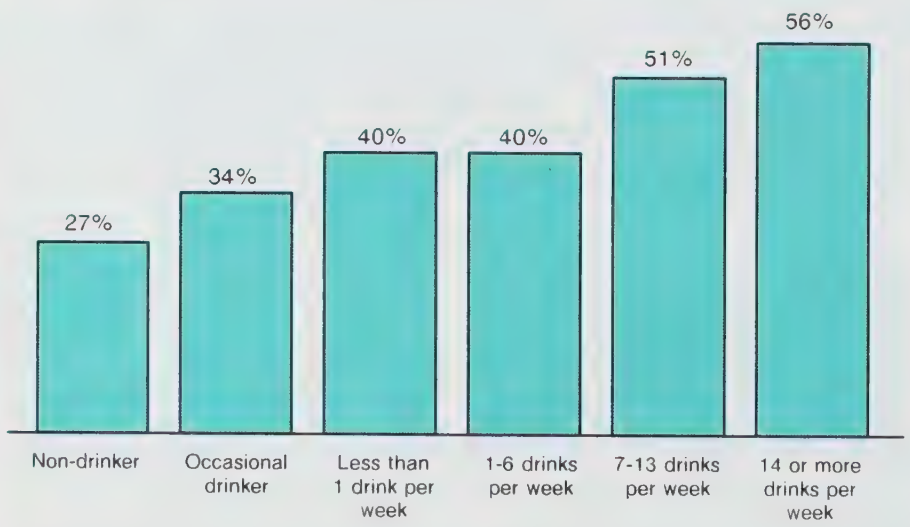
Consequences of accidents, 1987

	Percentage of accidents resulting in:					
	Personal injury	Out-patient hospital treatment	In-patient hospital treatment	Days confined to bed	Activity loss	Financial loss
Motor vehicle	42	16[1]	7[1]	23[1]	60	66
Work	98	56	9[1]	40	95	38
Sports	99	45	--	41	86	19[1]
Home	99	44[1]	--	46[1]	88	23[1]
All accidents[2]	79	37	8	36	79	39

[1] Data are subject to considerable sampling error and should be used with caution.
[2] Includes unclassified.
-- Amount too small to be expressed.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of population in an accident, by alcohol consumption, 1985-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.

Lost days

As a result of accidents, Canadians experienced more than 51 million days of restricted activity in 1987. Most of these "disability days" (82%) were days when temporary impairments hampered normal activities. The remainder were lost through confinement to bed (14%) or hospitalization (4%).

Overall, 34% of accident disability days were attributable to work mishaps. Motor vehicle accidents accounted for the second largest proportion (24%), followed by sports (17%) and home accidents (14%). The remaining 11% of disability days were caused by a variety of other mishaps.

Most hazardous time

Accidents tended to be seasonal, with summer accounting for almost a third (31%) of all mishaps. Roughly equal proportions of accidents happened in fall and winter (23% and 22%), and 18% occurred in spring. Data were insufficient to determine when the remaining 6% took place.

Accidents were most likely to happen in the afternoon. In 1987, 45% of accidents occurred in the afternoon. But as might be expected, this is related to the time at which particular activities are undertaken. For instance, work accidents tended to be daytime events, with 41% happening in the afternoon and 36% in the morning. The prime times for sports accidents were afternoon (53%) and evening (32%). Home accidents were also most likely in the afternoon (39%), although substantial proportions happened in the evening (29%) and in the morning (24%). Nearly half (48%) of motor vehicle accidents took place in the afternoon, and 23%, in the evening. As well, 9% of motor vehicle mishaps occurred at night, a higher proportion than for any other type of accident.

Wayne Millar *is a biostatistician with the Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada.* **Owen Adams** *is a senior analyst with the Health Division, Statistics Canada.*

SECRETARIES

by Carol Strike

Secretarial jobs are the largest occupational category for women in Canada. Compared with other occupations, however, the number of secretaries grew at a slower pace in the early 1980s.

In recent years, secretarial work has changed. Traditionally, a secretary's job consisted of taking dictation, typing, making appointments, and answering telephone calls. These duties still constitute a large part of secretarial work, but today, office technology has made secretarial tasks increasingly specialized and complex. As well as typing, secretaries are now just as likely to be familiar with computer spreadsheets. Yet despite this growing technological complexity, secretaries' salaries are low relative to those of other workers.



Almost half a million

In 1986, there were 465,250 secretaries in Canada, 459,725 of whom were women. The number of female secretaries had risen 77% since 1971. This rate of growth compared with an 86% rise in the rest of the female labour force. But despite the slower increase in numbers, secretaries remained the single most common female occupation, accounting for nearly 8% of all working women in 1986.

Information industries

Secretaries are concentrated in industries with a high demand for correspondence and written material. Thus, in 1986, service industries such as business, education, health, government, and finance/insurance accounted for seven out of ten secretaries.

However, as a proportion of all the women working in a particular industrial sector, the representation of secretaries is much higher in some industries than in others.

For instance, 22% of women employed by construction industries in 1986 were secretaries, considerably above the proportion of secretaries in the female labour force overall (8%). As well, secretaries made up 13% of the women in government service industries and 12% of those in finance/insurance.

In transportation/communications and business, education, and health services, the percentages of women who were secretaries were almost the same as in the total female labour force.

On the other hand, relatively few women working in trade (4%), primary industries (5%), and manufacturing (6%) were secretaries.

Working full-time, earning less

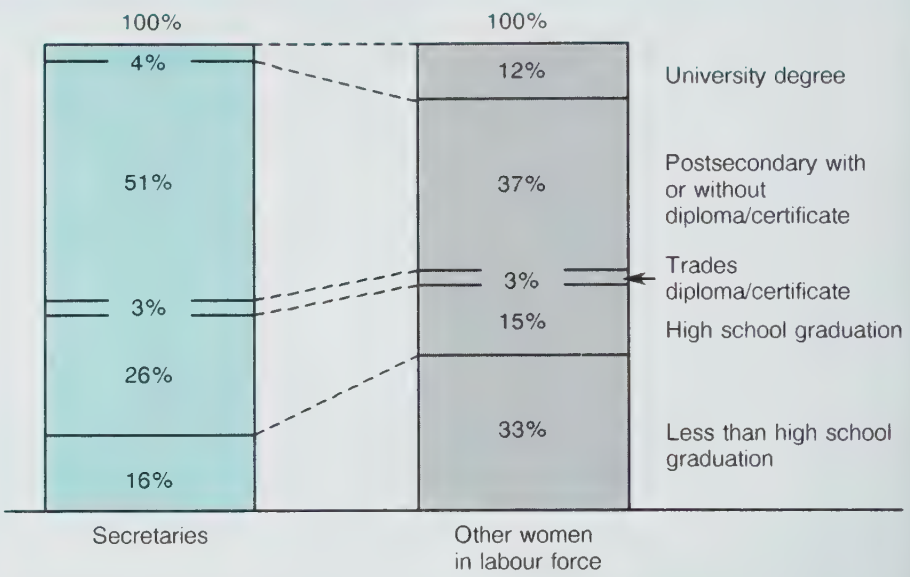
Secretaries are more likely than other women in the labour force to work full-time all year. In 1985, 54% of women who were secretaries had full-time year-round jobs, compared with 38% of other female workers.

As well, unemployment is less prevalent among secretaries than among other women. In June 1986, 6.7% of secretaries were unemployed, compared with 8.8% of the rest of the female workforce.

Secretaries' earnings, however, tend to be relatively low. In 1985, the average employment income of secretaries working full-time all year was $18,400 versus $20,000 for other women with full-time year-round jobs.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

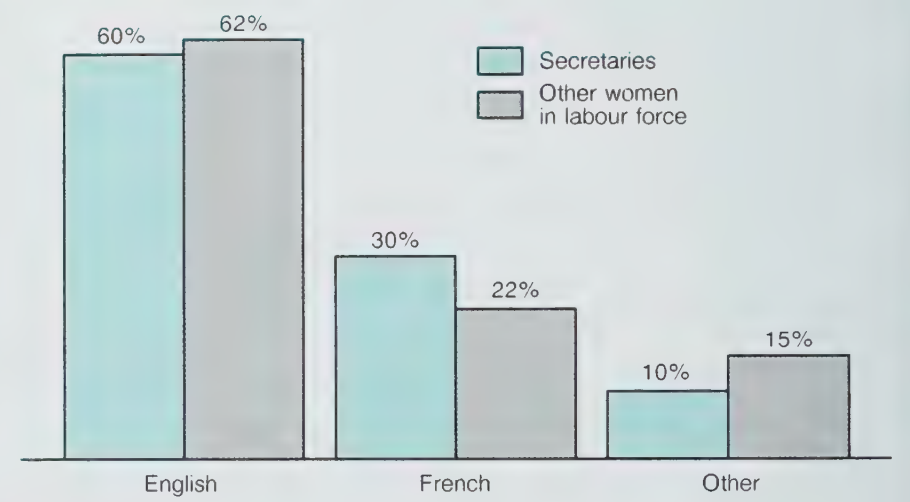
Educational attainment of secretaries and other women in the labour force, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Secretaries and other women in the labour force, by mother tongue, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

High school and beyond

Most secretaries have at least some formal education beyond high school. In 1986, 55% of secretaries had attended a postsecondary educational institution such as a university or community college. This compared with 49% of other women in the labour force.

The majority (69%) of secretaries with postsecondary qualifications (degrees, diplomas, or certificates) had studied secretarial science. Just under 8% had studied commerce, management, or business administration; 5%, humanities; 5%, education, recreation, or counselling; and 4%, social sciences.

At the other end of the education scale, only 16% of secretaries had not graduated from high school, compared with (33%) of other working women.

Mother tongue

The proportion of secretaries with French mother tongue is relatively high. In 1986,



Male secretaries

Although secretarial work has traditionally been a field dominated by women, 5,500 men reported themselves as secretaries in 1986. They made up just over 1% of the entire occupational group.

In several ways, the characteristics of men in secretarial jobs differ from those of their female counterparts.

Male secretaries tend to be older than women with similar occupations. Whereas 20% of these men were aged 55 and over in 1986, the figure for women was 9%.

A relatively high proportion of male secretaries are unmarried. Fully a third (33%) of the men in this occupational group were single, compared with 22% of the women.

As well, the proportion of male secretaries who are university graduates is considerably above the figure for women. While 13% of these men were degree-holders, the percentage among women was just 4%.

The employment status of male secretaries vis-à-vis women in these jobs is counter to the general trend in the labour force. In 1985, there was almost no difference in the proportions of male and female secretaries working full-time all year: 52% and 54%, respectively. By contrast, in the rest of the labour force, 56% of male workers had full-time year-round jobs, compared with 38% of female workers.

Male secretaries who worked full-time all year have higher employment incomes than women in similar positions. The earnings gap between them, however, is not as wide as among other workers. Female secretaries working full-time full-year averaged $18,400 in 1985, which was 72% of the $25,500 that their male counterparts received. By contrast, the average income of other women who worked full-time was just 66% of the average for comparable men.

French was the mother tongue of 30% of all secretaries, compared with just 22% of the rest of the female workforce. English was the mother tongue of 60% of secretaries, almost the same proportion as among other female workers (62%). On the other hand, just 10% of secretaries had a mother tongue other than English or French, while the figure among other working women was 16%.

Secretarial science education

From 1977 to 1988, the number of women enrolled full-time in secretarial science programs at community colleges rose 18% from 10,900 to 12,800. Enrolment, however, peaked at 13,700 in 1986, and then dropped in the next two years. Throughout the period, the field remained heavily female-dominated, with women accounting for at least 97% of students.

As a proportion of all female college students, those enrolled in secretarial science declined from a high of 14% in 1979 to 11% in 1986.

In 1986, 3,500 people graduated from community colleges with a secretarial science diploma. Virtually all of them (98%) were women, and they made up 10.5% of female college graduates that year.

Carol Strike *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Divison, Statistics Canada.*

TIME USE OF THE ELDERLY

by Marion Jones

As people move into the 65 and over age group, their lives often undergo dramatic changes. For many seniors, it is the time of retirement, loss of a spouse, reduced mobility, and deteriorating health. All these factors affect the way individuals spend their time.

According to the 1986 General Social Survey, a typical day of an elderly person differs considerably from that of a younger person. The transition from the labour force to retirement gives many people aged 65 and over considerably more free time. Because of this additional free time, they are more likely to participate in leisure activities and to spend more time on them. However, the daily patterns of older people in the labour force are similar to those of younger workers.



Free time

In 1986, elderly people, the majority of whom were retired, had more free time[1] than did younger people. People aged 65 and over had, on average, 7.7 hours of free time a day,[2] compared with 5.1 hours for 15-64-year-olds.

Men tended to have more free time than women, regardless of age. In 1986, men aged 65 and over, as well as those in the 15-64 age range, had half an hour more free time each day than did their female contemporaries. Older men had 8 hours of free time a day, compared with 7.5 hours for older women. Men in the younger age range had 5.4 hours of free time, compared with 4.9 hours for women.

[1] Includes everything but time spent on paid work, education, and personal and family care.

[2] All amounts of time have been averaged over 7 days.

Living alone - more free time

At all ages, people living alone had more free time than did those living with their spouse. The difference, however, is greater among those aged 65 and over than among 15-64-year-olds. In 1986, elderly men living alone had 9.3 hours of free time a day, compared with 7.8 hours for men living with their wife. At ages 15-64, men living alone had 5.8 hours of free time, compared with 5.0 hours for those living with their spouse.

Similarly, women aged 65 and over who lived alone had 8.2 hours of free time, compared with 6.7 hours for those living with their husband. In the younger age group, women living alone had 5.3 hours a day of free time, compared with 4.8 hours for those living with their spouse.

How they spend their free time

Elderly people were more likely than younger people to participate in various leisure activities. Fully 85% of people aged 65 and over reported watching television on any given day in 1986; the figure for those aged 15-64 was 73%. Older people who watched T.V. did so an average of 3.9 hours a day, compared with 3.0 hours for younger viewers. In both age ranges, men were more likely than women to watch television and to devote a slightly longer time to it.

Older people were twice as likely as younger people to spend time reading. In 1986, 27% of people aged 65 and over read a book or magazine on any given day, compared with 14% of 15-64-year-olds. Older people who read a book spent 2.3 hours a day doing so, compared with 1.5 hours for younger people. Also in 1986, while 33% of elderly people read a newspaper on any given day, the proportion among those aged 15-64 was just 16%.

Almost half of both men and women aged 65 and over participated in sports or hobbies, compared with one-quarter of those aged 15-64. In 1986, 42% of older men and 44% of older women were involved in these activities, compared with 27% for both younger men and women. And while older women spent slightly longer on these activites than older men (2.9 hours compared with 2.6 hours), the reverse was true among 15-64-year-olds (2.4 hours for women compared with 2.7 hours for men).

Older people were more likely than younger ones to participate in hobbies and domestic crafts, and also to play cards or games. Overall, 4% of people aged 65 and over were actively involved in hobbies in 1986, compared with 2% of those aged



15-64. Older women were particularly likely to participate in domestic crafts (22%), compared with 9% of younger women. Fewer than 1% of both older and younger men engaged in these activities. Cards and games were played by about 9% of older men and women, compared with 5% of younger people.

Older people were also more likely to walk or hike than were younger people. This was especially true for men. Fully 15% of men aged 65 and over reported walking or hiking, compared with just 5% of men aged 15-64. The proportion of older women who engaged in these activities was 7%, compared with 5% of younger women.

The likelihood of engaging in religious activities was greater among older than younger people. In 1986, 13% of people aged 65 and over took part in some religious activity on any given day, compared with 6% of those aged 15-64. This difference, may, in part, reflect changing religious practices, rather than age or amount of free time.

Sleeping/eating

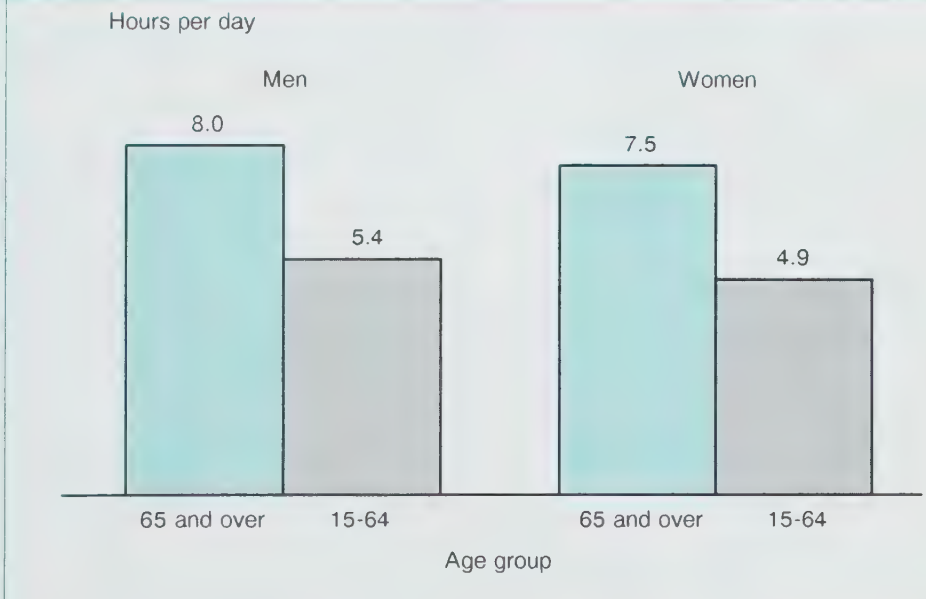
People aged 65 and over spent more time on personal care activities than did those aged 15-64. In 1986, older people spent just over half of their day (12.4 hours) on personal care, compared with 10.8 hours for younger people. Sleep accounts for most of this time, regardless of age.

Elderly people slept longer than 15-64-year-olds. In 1986, people aged 65 and over slept about half an hour more each day than did younger people: 8.7 hours compared with 8.1 hours.

Older people also spent more time on meals at home. Such meals accounted for 1.6 hours in the day of people aged 65 and over, while taking up 1.2 hours in the day of 15-64-year-olds. The elderly, however, were somewhat less likely than younger people to eat out (15% compared with 20%). Those who did eat out spent just over an hour in a restaurant, regardless of their age.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Free time, by sex and age group, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1987.



Older men spent a little more time on personal care than did older women, while the reverse was true among younger people. In 1986, men aged 65 and over engaged in personal care activities for an average of 12.5 hours a day, compared with 12.3 hours for women that age. By contrast, women aged 15-64 spent almost half an hour more on personal care than did men that age: 11.0 hours versus 10.6 hours.

Family care

Family care, which includes household chores, shopping, and child care, took up about the same amount of time for older and younger people. In 1986, people aged 65 and over who engaged in family care spent 3.9 hours a day on these activities, compared with 3.8 hours for those in the 15-64 age range.

Women spent more time on family care than did men, regardless of their age. However, the gap between women and men was narrower at older ages. As well, older women actually devoted slightly less time to family care than did younger women. In 1986, women aged 65 and over who did family care activities spent 4.2 hours a day on them, compared with 4.6 hours for those aged 15-64. For men aged 65 and over, family care took up 3.4 hours a day, compared with just 2.8 hours for younger men.

Labour force versus retired

While age appears to affect how people spend their time, retirement is one of the main factors influencing the time use of elderly people. In fact, the relatively small number of older people in the labour force had daily patterns similar to those of younger working people. For example, working men aged 65 and over spent 10.8 hours a day on personal care in 1986, compared with 10.4 hours for those aged 15-64. Working women aged 65 and over spent 10.4 hours on personal care activities, compared with 10.7 hours for those in the 15-64 age range.

Nonetheless, younger working men and women spent more time at their jobs than did older people. In 1986, men aged 15-64 in the labour force worked 6.6 hours a day (averaged over 7 days), and their female counterparts, 5.5 hours a day. This compared with an average of 5.3 hours of work for both men and women aged 65 and over who were in the labour force.

Consequently, older workers had more free time than did younger people. In 1986, men aged 65 and over in the labour force had 6 hours of free time a day, one hour more than younger working men. The difference was not as great for women: older women in the labour force had 5.1 hours of free time, compared with 4.3 hours for younger women.

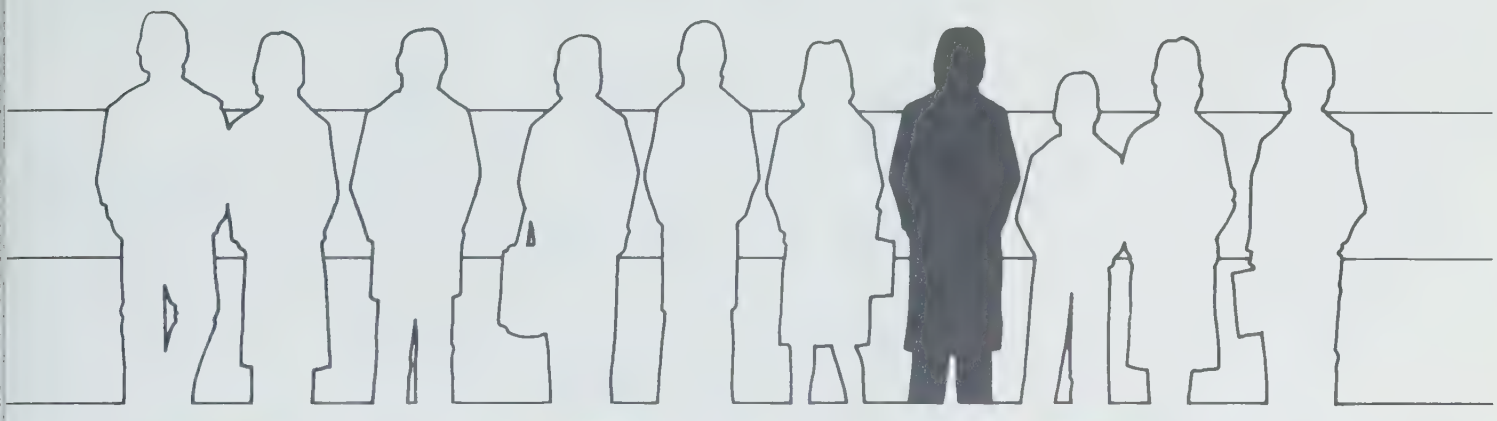
About the General Social Survey

The General Social Survey, conducted by Statistics Canada, gathers a variety of data on socio-economic trends not available through existing sources. The survey is taken annually, with a sample size of about 10,000 households. Besides time use, the General Social Survey has covered topics such as health and social support (1985), language and social mobility (1986), crime and accidents (1988), and work and education (1989).

More information on this survey is available from:

General Social Survey
Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division
Statistics Canada
R.H.Coats Bldg., 17-F
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T6
(613) 951-0466

Marion Jones *is an analyst with the General Social Survey, Statistics Canada.*



Over three million Canadian adults have a disability...

The Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS) interviewed over 120,000 disabled Canadians residing in households and institutions. The result is a unique and detailed database on the barriers faced by more than 1 in 10 Canadians during the conduct of their daily activities.

Whether you plan and develop policies and programs for persons with disabilities, employ disabled people, or design accommodation facilities or transportation services, HALS can provide you with the information you need to make better decisions.

A comprehensive profile of the disabled population is available for each province and territory. Special studies are also underway and cover issues such as:

- characteristics of disabled persons who are not in the labour force
- special needs of seniors with disabilities
- socio-economic conditions specific to women with disabilities

Call your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre and find out more about the publications, special request service and microdata files from HALS. Our centres are listed in this publication.

CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

by George Mori and Brian Burke

According to the 1986 Census, the educational attainment of the Canadian population continues to rise. This is particularly evident in the growing number of people who have graduated from a university or community college. At the same time, the share of the population, particularly young adults, with less than Grade 9 education is falling.

More graduates

The increase in the population with a university degree was particularly rapid. In fact, between 1961 and 1986, the number of university graduates rose 432%, nearly seven times the growth rate of the adult population overall (65%). As a result, in 1986, 10% of Canadians aged 15 and over had a university degree, up from 8% in 1981, and just 3% in 1961.

The proportion of adults who had graduated from other postsecondary institutions, such as community colleges, Quebec CEGEPs, or institutes of technology, has also risen dramatically. In 1986, 10% of the population had graduated from one of these institutions, up slightly from 9% in 1981. In 1961, there were too few graduates of these institutions to measure accurately.

As well, a relatively large proportion of adult Canadians have attended postsecondary institutions without graduating. In 1986, 20% of adults had taken some courses beyond high school, but not enough to obtain a degree or diploma.

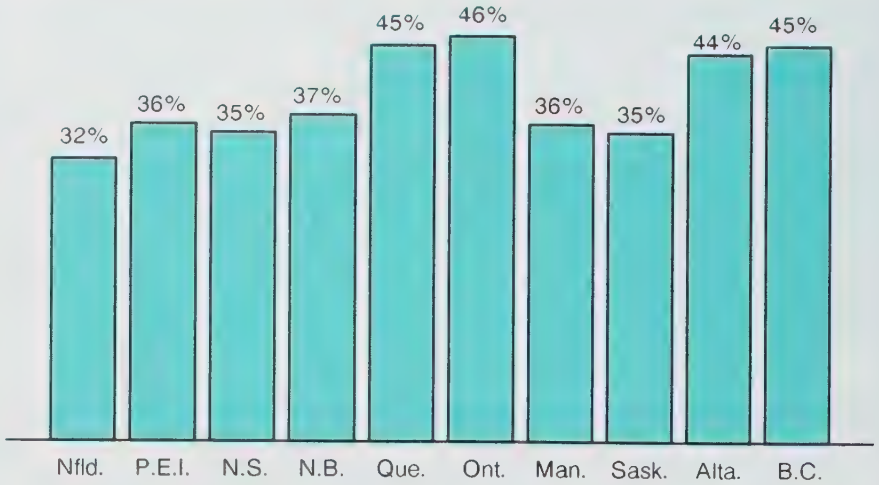
Fewer with less than Grade 9

Growth in the share of people with a degree or diploma coincided with sharp declines in the proportion with lower levels of education. In 1986, 3.5 million people, or 18% of the population aged 15 and over, had less than Grade 9. In 1961, there had been 5.3 million people in this category, representing 44% of the adult population.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of adults with high school certificate, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 98-134.

The diminishing size of the less educated population is most pronounced at younger ages. For example, in 1986, just 4% of people aged 20-24 and only 8% of those in the 25-44 age range had not gone past Grade 8. In contrast, the figures were 29% for people aged 45-64 and 46% for those aged 65 and over. In fact, one-third of all Canadians with less than Grade 9 were aged 65 and over.

The great dividing line: high school graduation

In many ways, high school graduation is a significant benchmark in educational achievement. It is the first formal credential conferred by educational institutions. It is also usually the first item mentioned on job applications and résumés. Furthermore, secondary school graduation is required for entry into university studies and the majority of college programs.

Overall, in 1986, 44% of Canadians aged 15 and over were secondary school graduates. The proportion of the people with a high school diploma, however, varied substantially in different age groups. It was lowest, by far, among the elderly. Only one in five (21%) Canadians aged 65 and over were secondary graduates. In comparison, 32% of people aged 45-64 and 56% of those aged 25-44 had completed high school.

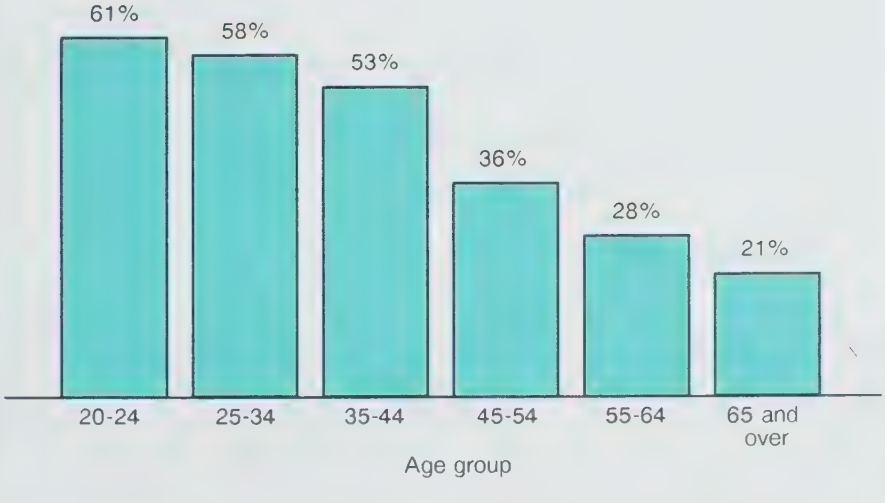
Provincial variations in the proportion of high school graduates were considerable. The percentage of adults with a high school certificate ranged from around 45% in Quebec, Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia to about 35% in the other provinces. Prince Edward Island, at 32%, had the lowest proportion of high school graduates among its adult residents.

The majority of high school graduates have taken at least one course at the postsecondary level. In 1986, four out of ten secondary school graduates had completed university courses, and three out of ten, college or trades courses. Only three out of ten secondary graduates had not completed any further postsecondary studies.

Secondary school graduation is a key factor in determining labour force activity and income. In 1986, high school graduates aged 25-44 had a labour force participation rate of 88%, compared with 79% for those without a secondary certificate. Also, the unemployment rate for 25-44-year-olds with secondary graduation was lower at 7% than the 12% for those without a high school certificate. The average employment income of full-time full-year workers in this age range was $29,600 for high school graduates, compared with $23,400 for those without a certificate.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of high school graduates, by age group, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-110.

Regional variation

There is considerable provincial variation in educational attainment. People in Alberta and Ontario generally have the highest levels of education.

Alberta and Ontario were the provinces with the largest proportion of university graduates. In 1986, 11% of adults in each of those provinces were degree-holders. The figure was 9% in British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec, and Nova Scotia; 7% in Saskatchewan, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island; and 6% in Newfoundland.

At the same time, British Columbia, Alberta, and Ontario had the smallest proportions of residents who had not gone beyond Grade 8. In 1986, just 11% of adults in both British Columbia and Alberta, and 15% in Ontario had less than Grade 9. In contrast, around one in four residents of Quebec (24%), New Brunswick (24%), and Newfoundland (27%) had not attended high school.

Different provincial education systems

Each province has its own education system. One of the most important differences is the total number of years students normally require to graduate from secondary school (not counting kindergarten). At the time of the 1986 Census, this ranged from 11 years in Quebec to 13 years in Ontario.

The system of final examinations in the last year of high school also varies from province to province. In British Columbia, Alberta, Quebec, and Newfoundland, provincial examinations in academic subjects count for half of the students' final marks. In contrast, Manitoba, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island do not have province-wide final exams; instead, they award school-leaving diplomas based on a number of criteria including performance on exams and tests, school records, and teachers' assessments. Saskatchewan and New Brunswick use a combination of provincial exams and other factors.

George Mori *is a senior analyst and* **Brian Burke** *is a senior technical officer with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2
Immigration[1]	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024
Emigration[1]	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486
- goods sector (000s)	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740
- services sector (000s)	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745
Total unemployment (000s)	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018
Unemployment rate (%)	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5
Part-time employment (%)	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,110	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	*
% of families with low income	12.6	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.0	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,973.9	5,025.5[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	836.6[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.4	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.1	5.9	5.9	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	949[p]
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,517[p]
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	135,536.6	141,988.2	143,661.4	148,891.5	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.1	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.5	28.1	27.1	26.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0	+2.9
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0
Urban housing starts	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

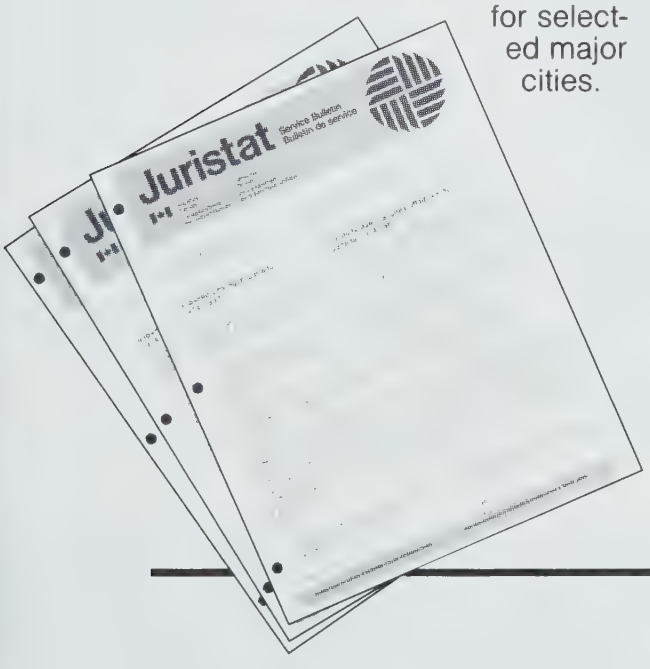
[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

How do we spend over $7 billion a year to administer our Justice System?

How many Canadians are charged with impaired driving every year? What is the per capita cost of legal aid? How many police officers protect 26 million Canadians? These are the types of questions answered by **Juristat**.

Each issue gives you an analysis and detailed statistics on a different aspect of the justice system. **Juristat** provides you with data on law enforcement, legal aid, corrections, and adult and juvenile courts on national, provincial and territorial levels, as well as for selected major cities.



Thousands of individual justice-related agencies and departments provide the information.

A year's subscription gives you twelve issues of comprehensive, current and extensive justice-related information. Published by Statistics Canada, **Juristat** is a unique periodical, of great interest to anyone looking for information on Canada's justice system.

Get the facts.

A subscription to **Juristat** (Catalogue No. 85-002) is $78 in Canada, US$94 in the United States and US$109 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland – 1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or 1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or 1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or 1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or 1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or 1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or 1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or 1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia – 1-604-666-3691 or 1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia – Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price ($ Can.) In Canada	Price ($ Can.) Elsewhere
62-201	Homeowner Repair and Renovation in Canada, 1987	$25.00	$30.00
85-002	Juristat Service Bulletin, Vol. 9, No. 3	$3.70	$4.40
85-209	Homicide in Canada	$37.00	$44.00
93-110	Population and Dwelling Characteristics: Schooling and Major Field of Study	$60.00	$70.00
98-134	Educational Attainment of Canadians	$10.00	$11.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Business and Finance

Cat. No. 61-517 — Inter-Corporate Ownership ($325/$390)

Cat. No. 63-218 — Direct Selling in Canada ($22/$26/$31)

Cat. No. 63-223 — Annual Retail Trade ($21/$25)

Canadian Society

Cat. No. 71-205 — Labour Market Activity Survey — Profiles — Canada's Women: A Profile of Their Labour Market Experiences ($12/$14/$17)

Cat. No. 71-206 — Labour Market Activity Survey — Profiles — Canada's Men: A Profile of Their Labour Market Experiences ($12/$14/$17)

Cat. No. 91-209E — Current Demographic Analysis: Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada ($21/$25)

Cat. No. 91-535E — Demographic Changes in the Canadian Family ($25/$30)

Education

Cat. No. 81-241 — Teachers in Universities ($26/$31)

Cat. No. 81-258 — Salaries and Salary Scales of Full-time Teaching Staff at Canadian Universities ($21/$25)

Health

Cat. No. 83-226 — Nursing in Canada ($18/$22)

Two Decades of Change!

Women in Canada: A Statistical Report is the most extensive compendium on the changing roles, status and lifestyles of Canadian women today.

Compiling 20 years of demographic, economic, social, and cultural data, **Women in Canada** features 190 tables, 65 coloured charts, concise analysis, plus comparative statistics for men.

Whether you're planning social policies, developing marketing strategies, or studying women's issues, **Women in Canada** gives you the information you need — right at your fingertips!



Women in Canada, (Cat. no. 89-503 E) is $35 in Canada, and US$42 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6; or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

11
-008

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E

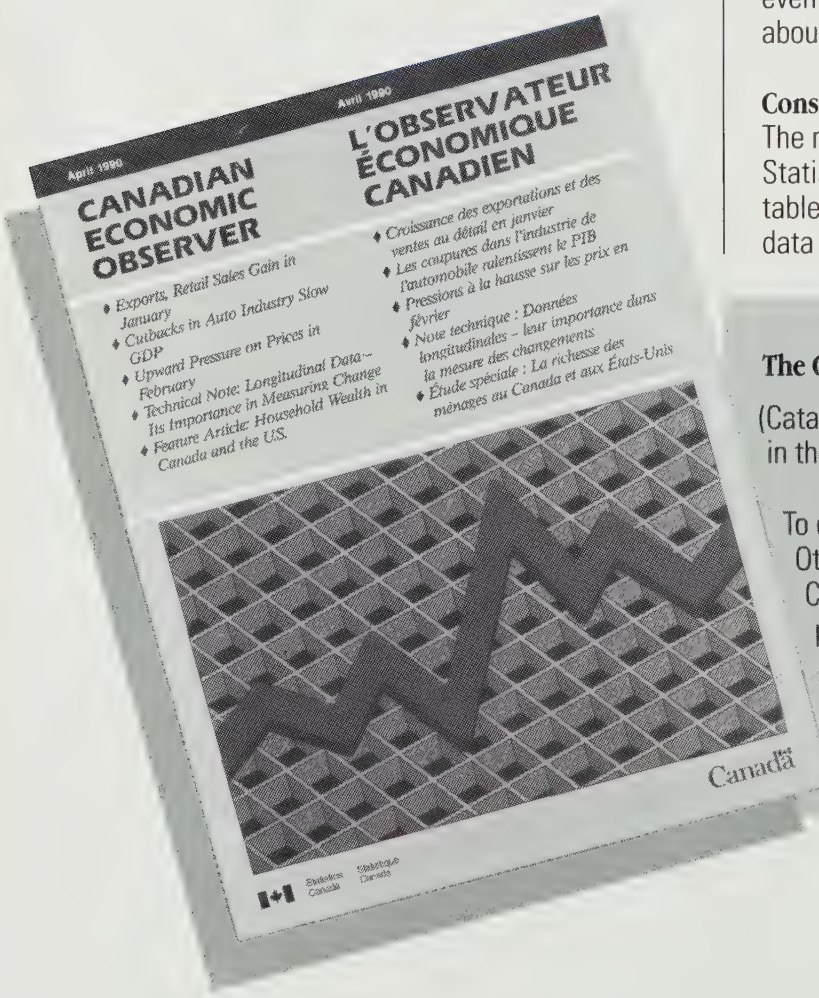


PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES ☐ YOUNG OFFENDERS

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

No other monthly report on the Canadian Economy has this much to offer



Canadian Economic Observer
The most extensive and timely information source for people who want objective facts and analysis on the Canadian Economy... every month.

Current economic conditions
Brief, "to the point" a current update summary of the economy's performance including trend analyses on employment, output, demand and the leading indicator.

Feature articles
In-depth research on current business and economic issues: business cycles, employment trends, personal savings, business investment plans and corporate concentration.

Statistical summary
Statistical tables, charts and graphs cover national accounts, output, demand, trade, labour and financial markets.

Regional analysis
Provincial breakdowns of key economic indicators.

International overview
Digest of economic performance of Canada's most important trading partners — Europe, Japan and the U.S.

Economic and statistical events
Each month, CEO also publishes a chronology of current events that will affect the economy, and information notes about new products from Statistics Canada.

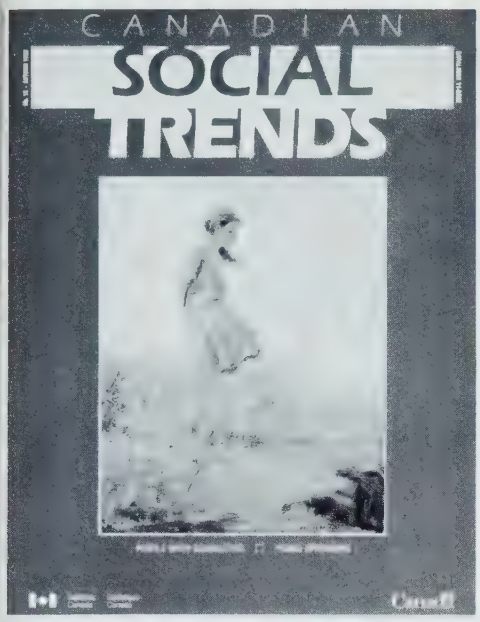
Consult with an expert
The names and phone numbers of the most appropriate Statistics Canada contacts are provided with each data table in the statistical summary; not only can you read the data and the analysis, you can talk to the experts about it.

The Canadian Economic Observer

(Catalogue no. 11-010) is $220 annually in Canada, US$260 in the United States and US$310 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll free at 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.



Cover: ***The Wind Flower*** (acquired 1916) oil on academy board, 61.2 x 45.7 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

Lorna Fyfe Reid was born in London, Ontario in 1887. She studied with F. McGillvray Knowles, Toronto and Kenneth Hayes Miller at the Art Students League, New York.



CONTENTS

No. 18 - AUTUMN 1990

Profile of Canadians with Disabilities 2
by Katherine Nessner

The Indo-Chinese in Canada 7
by Pamela M. White

Young Offenders 11
by Derrick Doige

Labour Force Trends: Two Decades in Review 16
by Jo-Anne B. Parliament

Changes in Women's Occupations 21
by Catherine Shea

Women in School Administration 24
by Sandra Cusson

People in Co-operative Housing 27
by Mary Anne Burke

Decline in the Number of Children 32
by Mary Sue Deveraux

Social Indicators 35

1989 Annual Index of Articles — Winter Issue, Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Contributing Editor	Katherine Nessner
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Health and Welfare Canada; Photo Centre, SSC; Tom Skudra; Miller Comstock: E. Hayes, Guy Marche, The Citizen; Marion Stuck
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	K. Bennett, W. Boxhill, C. Bronson, J. Che-Alford, J. Coallier, S. DeSilva, J. Dessureaux-Beaupré, A. Furrie, S. Gagnon, A. Haman, A. Kohut, M. Lisciotto, J. Pantalone, C. Prévost, C. Richard, T. Ring, M. Saint-Laurent, J. Sauvé, J. Seidle, B. Soublière

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Regional Industrial Expansion. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1990, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677.** Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends,** 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. Extracts from this publication may be reproduced for individual use without permission provided the source is fully acknowledged. However, reproduction of this publication in whole or in part for purposes of resale or redistribution requires written permission from the Programs and Publishing Products Group, Acting Permissions Officer, Crown Copyright Administration, Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Canada K1A 0S9. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

PROFILE OF CANADIANS WITH DISABILITIES

by Katherine Nessner

The integration of Canadians with disabilities into mainstream society remains one of this country's major social objectives. In 1986, disabled people numbered 3.3 million and made up 13% of Canada's population.[1]



ne in four severely disabled

relatively large proportion of people ith disabilities are severely impaired. In 986, 23% of the disabled population had severe disability. Most people with isabilities, though, had a condition hich was less than severe: 32% had a oderate disability, while 45% had a mild isability.

estricted movement

he most common disabilities involve me restriction of movement. In 1986, 6% of the disabled population aged 15 nd over had mobility problems. These ncluded limitations in their ability to alk, move from room to room, carry an bject a short distance, or stand for a long me. Another 58% of people with disabil- ies reported difficulty in performing ctivities such as bending, reaching, ressing themselves, getting in and out of ed, or grasping objects.

Hearing problems were the next most ommon disability, affecting 32% of isabled people. Another 18% were isually impaired, while 8% had difficulty peaking. A variety of other conditions, uch as psychiatric problems or devel- pmental delay, affected over 30% of eople with disabilities.

lumber of disabilities

Most adults who reported that they were lisabled had more than one disability. In act, in 1986, this was the case for 64% of lisabled people: 31% had two types of lisability, and 33% had three or more.

Most prevalent among elderly

Elderly people are the most likely to be lisabled. In 1986, nearly half (46%) of the opulation aged 65 and over reported aving some form of disability. Further- nore, among those aged 85 and over, 32% were disabled.

In contrast, 16% of 35-64-year-olds, 6% of people aged 15-34, and 5% of children nder age 15 had a disability.

As well, older people are more likely han those in younger age groups to have severe disability. In 1986, 35% of dis- abled people aged 65 and over had a severe condition. This compared with 16% of the disabled population aged 15- 64, and 9% of disabled children.

[1] The World Health Organization defines a disability as "any restriction or lack of ability resulting from impairment to perform an activity in the manner, or within the range, considered normal."

Multiple disabilities also tend to be more common among elderly people. In 1986, 75% of the disabled population aged 65 and over reported more than one disability, whereas the proportion for those aged 15-64 was 56%.

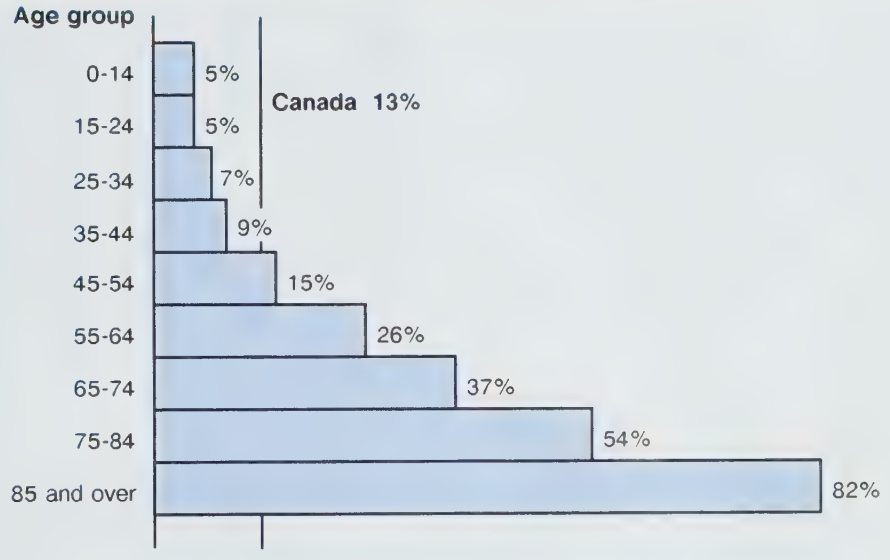
Women aged 65 and over are slightly more likely than men in this age range to be disabled. While 47% of elderly women reported some form of disability in 1986, the corresponding figure for men was 44%. At younger ages, the proportions of males and females with a disability were almost identical.

Few in institutions

Although most people with disabilities live in private households, a significant minority are in institutions. In 1986, 7% of the disabled population lived in facilities such as special care homes and institutions for the elderly and chronically ill; general hospitals; psychiatric treatment centres; institutions for the physically

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

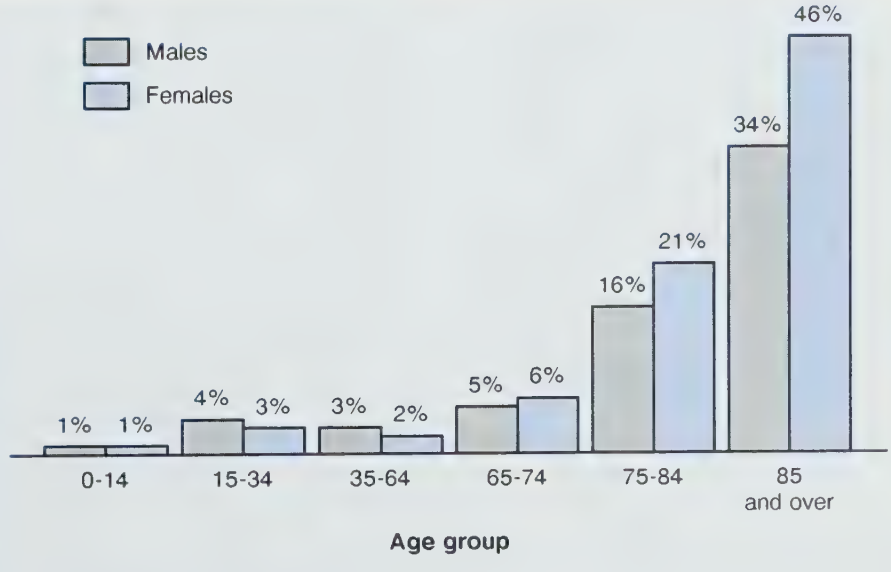
People with disabilities as a percentage of population, by age, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of people with disabilities living in institutions, by age group and sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

handicapped; and orphanages and children's homes.

The elderly account for the vast majority of disabled people living in institutions. In 1986, 79% of all institutionalized people with disabilities were aged 65 and over.

Disabled elderly women are more likely than their male counterparts to live in institutions. In 1986, 19% of disabled women aged 65 and older were in institutions, compared with 11% of elderly men. In addition, for both women and men, the rate of institutionalization climbs sharply at progressively older ages. Among those aged 85 and over, for example, 46% of disabled women and 34% of disabled men were in institutions.

In contrast, fewer than 5% of disabled men and women aged 15-64 lived in institutions, and among children, the proportion was less than 1%.

Not surprisingly, the more severe the disability, the more likely the disabled person is to be in an institution. In 1986, 24% of people with severe disabilities were in institutions, whereas the figure was 4% for those who were moderately disabled, and just 1% for those with mild disabilities.

Living alone

At all ages, a relatively high proportion of people with disabilities live alone. In 1986, 12% of non-institutionalized disabled people aged 15-64 lived alone, compared with 7% of the non-disabled in this age range. As well, 30% of disabled people aged 65 and over lived alone, compared with 26% of those without disabilities.

Still, most non-institutionalized disabled people live in a family setting, although the proportion is less than for non-disabled people. In 1986, 78% of disabled people aged 15-64 were living in families as husbands, wives, lone parents, or children. The corresponding figure for the non-disabled population was 86%.

The remainder of both people with (9%) and without (7%) disabilities were living with other family members such as brothers, sisters, aunts and uncles, or with non-relatives.

Marital status

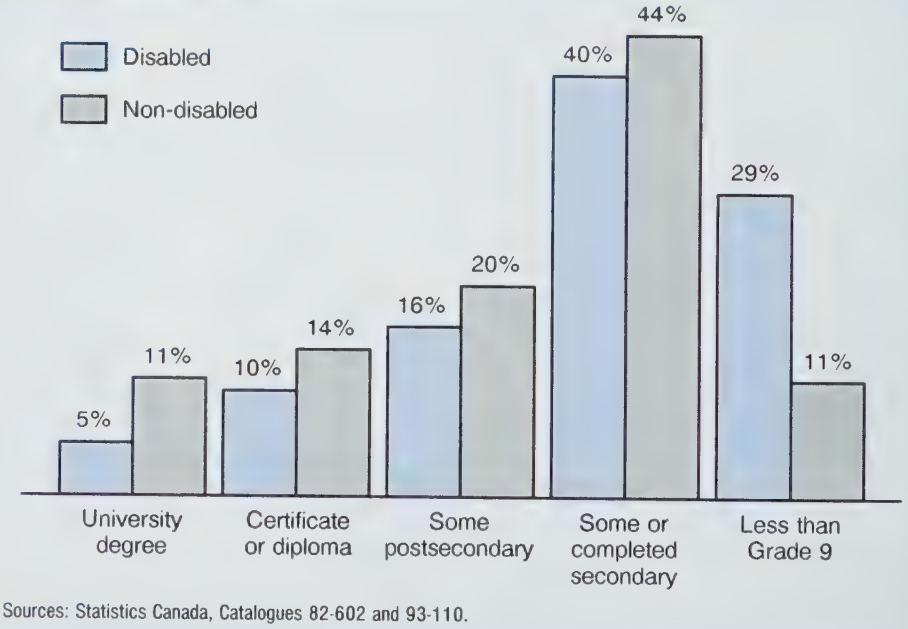
As is the case for the non-disabled population, most adults with disabilities are married. In 1986, 62% of both disabled and non-disabled 15-64-year-olds were married. Among people aged 65 and over, 52% with disabilities were married, while the figure for the non-disabled was 61%.

Disabled adults, however, are more likely than people without disabilities to



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Educational attainment of disabled and non-disabled population aged 15-64, 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-602 and 93-110.

be divorced, separated, or widowed. At ages 15-64, 11% of disabled people were divorced or separated, compared with 6% of their non-disabled contemporaries. As well, 6% of the disabled population aged 15-64 were widowed, in contrast to 2% of non-disabled people.

On the other hand, non-institutionalized disabled adults are less likely than their non-disabled counterparts to be single. In 1986, 22% of people aged 15-64 with disabilities were single, compared with 31% of those without disabilities.

Differences in marital status, however, are largely a reflection of the age distribution of these two populations, with the disabled more concentrated in older age groups.

Less formal education

Disabled people tend to have less formal education than non-disabled Canadians. For example, in 1986, 5% of non-institutionalized disabled people aged 15-64 were university graduates, whereas the corresponding figure for the non-disabled population was 11%. Similarly, 10% of people with disabilities had earned a postsecondary certificate or diploma, compared with 14% of those without disabilities.

At the same time, people with disabilities are much more likely than other Canadians to have low levels of education. In 1986, 29% of non-institutionalized disabled people aged 15-64 had less than Grade 9, while the figure was 11% for other people in this age group.

Some of these differences in educational attainment, though, may be due to the fact that the disabled population is older, on average, than the non-disabled population, and older people generally have lower levels of education.

Lower labour force participation

In recent years, the role of disabled workers in the Canadian labour force has expanded. Technology has allowed many more disabled people to perform in a wide variety of jobs, and special training has become more readily available. Still, compared with non-disabled adults, a much smaller proportion of the disabled population is employed.

In 1986, only 40% of the 1.8 million disabled people aged 15-64 were employed. This compared with 70% of non-disabled adults.

This discrepancy holds among both men and women. While 50% of disabled men aged 15-64 were employed, the figure was 80% for non-disabled men. Similarly, only 31% of disabled women had jobs, in contrast to 60% of non-disabled women.

Employment rates for disabled people are low, not because their unemployment rates are high, but rather because a large proportion of them do not participate in the labour force. In 1986, 51% of people with disabilities were not in the labour force: 40% of men and 61% of women. By contrast, just 22% of non-disabled people did not participate in the labour force: 12% of men and 32% of women.

Occupations

While disabled people are employed in most fields, they are less likely than other workers to have managerial or professional jobs, and are more likely to work in skilled and semi-skilled trades or manual jobs.

In 1986, workers with disabilities accounted for 6% of total employment. However, they made up just 5% of senior managers, middle managers, and professionals.

On the other hand, 10% of people in skilled crafts and trades were disabled, as were 12% of semi-skilled workers and 14% of other manual workers.



Income gap

Disabled adults generally have lower incomes than other Canadians. In 1985, disabled men aged 15 and over had a median income of $13,000, compared with $20,900 for non-disabled men. The difference was not as great among women: disabled women had a median income of $8,200 in 1985, compared with $10,000 for those without disabilities.

The income gap between people with and without disabilities narrows after retirement age. At age 65 and over, 8% of the disabled and 10% of the non-disabled population had 1985 incomes less than $5,000. However, 52% of disabled elderly people received $5,000 to $10,000, compared with 41% of their non-disabled counterparts. At the other end of the income scale, 7% of elderly disabled people had 1985 incomes greater than $25,000, whereas the figure for those without disabilities was 13%.

Only a minority of the disabled population receive disability-related pensions. Moreover, disabled people in the 15-64 age range are more likely than those aged 65 and over to have some income in this form. In 1985, such payments were made to 23% of disabled 15-64-year-olds, while the proportion among those aged 65 and over was just 7%.

The Health and Activity Limitation Survey

As part of Statistics Canada's commitment to build and maintain a national database on disability, the Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS) was conducted in the autumn of 1986 and the spring of 1987.

The survey covered approximately 112,000 people with disabilities who lived in private households and 20,000 who lived in institutions.

More information on Canadians with disabilities is available in *Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602; or by calling Janet Pantalone, Post-Censal Survey Program, 1-613-951-0025.

Katherine Nessner *is a Contributing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

THE NEWS BEHIND THE NUMBERS

The 1986 Census Data Base collected the numbers on Canadians – but what do they mean to you? The *FOCUS ON CANADA* Series analyses the issues that emerged from the Census results, in an easy-to-read style.

FOCUS ON CANADA looks at the issues affecting Canada's seniors and its youth, its ethnic and aboriginal communities; its regions in the far north and the industrial south.

And there's much more to keep you informed – and enlightened. Each publication is bilingual, and costs $10 in Canada (US$11 in other countries). Order the full set of 16 for a comprehensive reference tool for home, school or office.



To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6.
For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free.

Please make cheques or money orders payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications.

Contact a Regional Reference Centre near you for further information.

1-800-267-6677 Call Toll-Free

THE INDO-CHINESE IN CANADA

by Pamela M. White



Canada has a small but growing Indo-Chinese community. Most of these people are from Vietnam, but there are also significant numbers from other countries in Southeast Asia, such as Kampuchea, Laos, and Thailand. As well, most Indo-Chinese Canadians are recent immigrants. Despite their low numbers, the Indo-Chinese have attracted considerable attention, largely because of the circumstances surrounding their immigration to Canada.

A small minority

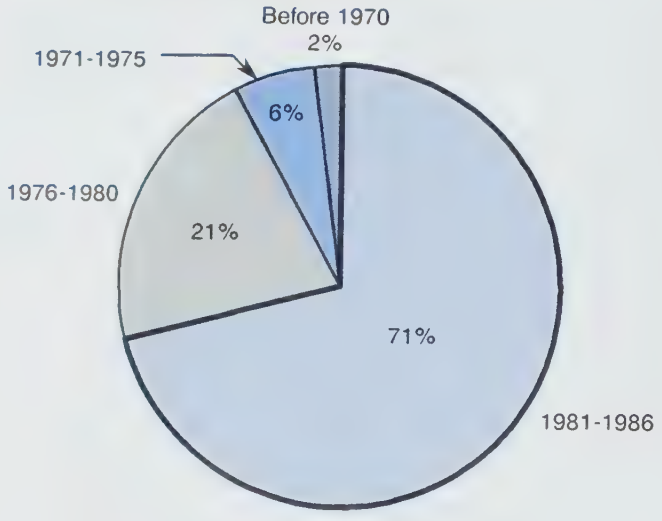
In 1986, 125,000 people of Indo-Chinese descent were living in Canada. That year, they accounted for 0.5% of the total population. Although small, these figures were considerably above those recorded five years earlier, when Indo-Chinese people in Canada numbered 44,000 and made up just 0.2% of the country's population.

The overwhelming majority of Canada's Indo-Chinese community are immigrants. Of people of Indo-Chinese descent living in the country in 1986, 90% were immigrants, while just 10% had been born here.

As well, most Indo-Chinese immigrants have been in Canada only a short while. Almost three-quarters (71%) of Indo-Chinese immigrants living in Canada in 1986 had arrived after 1980, and another 21% had immigrated during the 1976-1980 period. Just 6% had arrived from 1971 to 1975, while only 2% had immigrated before then.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

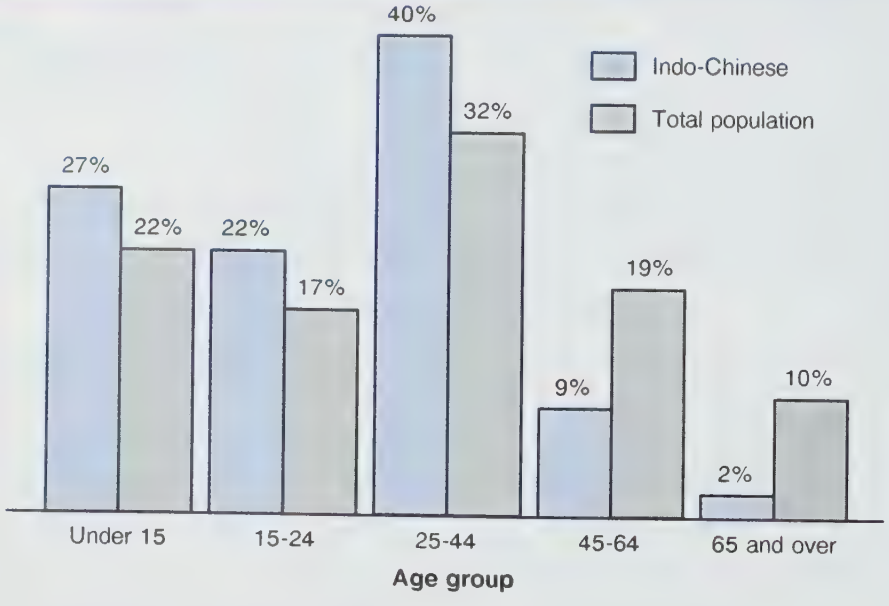
Period of arrival of Indo-Chinese immigrants, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Age distribution of Indo-Chinese and total populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

The vast majority of the Indo-Chinese, however, have become citizens. By 1986, for example, 92% of those eligible to apply had obtained Canadian citizenship.

Most from Vietnam

The majority of Indo-Chinese Canadians are Vietnamese. Of those living in Canada in 1986, two-thirds (66%) were natives of Vietnam. Another 10% had been born in Kampuchea, 9% were from Laos, and 2% originated in Thailand. The remaining 13% came from a variety of other countries.

Provincial distribution

As is true of the Canadian population overall, the Indo-Chinese are concentrated in just four provinces. In 1986, 91% of Indo-Chinese people lived in Ontario, Quebec, Alberta, or British Columbia; these provinces accounted for 83% of the total population.

Almost four out of ten (38%) Indo-Chinese people lived in Ontario in 1986, while 25% lived in Quebec, 16% in Alberta, and 11% in British Columbia. In contrast, the four Atlantic provinces together were home to just over 1% of all Indo-Chinese in Canada.

As a proportion of a provincial population, however, the largest Indo-Chinese community is in Alberta. In 1986, Indo-Chinese people made up 0.9% of that province's residents. They also accounted for 0.6% of Manitoba's population, and 0.5% of people in each of Ontario, Quebec, and British Columbia. On the other hand, no more than 0.1% of residents in any of the Atlantic provinces were Indo-Chinese.

An urban group

Virtually all the Indo-Chinese live in urban areas, particularly large cities. In 1986, 98% of Indo-Chinese people were residents of metropolitan areas, compared with 76% of all Canadians.

In fact, close to half (45%) of all Indo-Chinese lived in either Toronto or Montreal in 1986. That year, Toronto accounted for 24% of the Indo-Chinese, and Montreal, 21%. Together, these two urban areas made up one-quarter of Canada's total population.

There were also relatively large Indo-Chinese communities in Vancouver, Calgary, and Edmonton. In 1986, 8% of Indo-Chinese people lived in Vancouver, compared with 5% of all Canadians. At the same time, Calgary and Edmonton each accounted for 7% of the Indo-Chinese versus 3% of the total population.



Many children, few elderly

Canada's Indo-Chinese people tend to be younger than Canadians overall. In 1986, for example, nine out of ten Indo-Chinese people, compared with seven out of ten other Canadians, were under the age of 45.

Of all Indo-Chinese living in Canada in 1986, 27% were under age 15, compared with 22% of the total population. Another 22% of the Indo-Chinese were aged 15-24, whereas 17% of all Canadians were in this age group. People in the prime working-age range (25-44) accounted for 40% of the Indo-Chinese, but just 32% of Canada's population.

On the other hand, while 9% of the Indo-Chinese were aged 45-64 in 1986, 19% of all Canadians were in this age range. As well, only 2% of the Indo-Chinese were aged 65 and older, while the corresponding figure for the total population was 10%.

Family status

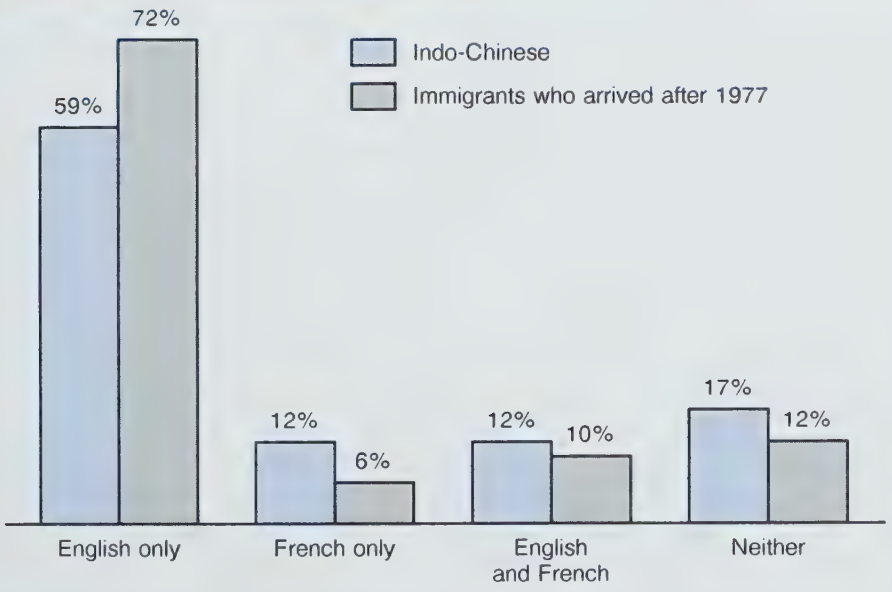
As is the case for Canadians in general, most Indo-Chinese live in families. In 1986, 83% of all Indo-Chinese in Canada were husbands, wives, or lone parents, or children of these people. This proportion was almost the same as for all Canadians (86%).

The Indo-Chinese, however, are more likely than other Canadians to live with members of their extended family. While 10% of Indo-Chinese people lived with relatives such as aunts, uncles, brothers, and sisters, just 3% of Canada's total population had similar living arrangements. As well, the Indo-Chinese are more likely than Canadians overall to live with non-relatives: 5% compared with 3%.

On the other hand, a comparatively small proportion of Indo-Chinese people live alone. While just 2% of the Indo-Chinese lived alone in 1986, this was the case for 8% of all Canadians.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Official language knowledge of Indo-Chinese and other recent immigrants, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Language ability

The majority of Indo-Chinese people are able to speak at least one of Canada's official languages. In 1986, 83% of the Indo-Chinese could speak English, French, or both languages.

Compared with other recent immigrants, however, the proportion of Indo-Chinese who know English is low, while the percentage who speak French is high. In 1986, 59% of Indo-Chinese people could speak English, compared with 72% of all immigrants who arrived in Canada after 1977. At the same time, 12% of the Indo-Chinese could speak French, whereas the figure for all recent immigrants was just 6%.

In addition, 12% of Indo-Chinese people could function in both English and French, compared with 10% of all immigrants who arrived after 1977.

Still, a relatively high proportion of the Indo-Chinese did not know either official language. In 1986, 17% of Indo-Chinese people spoke neither English nor French, while the percentage for all recent immigrants was 12%.

Education

Indo-Chinese men have roughly the same levels of formal education as Canada's total male population. However, Indo-Chinese women have less formal education than Canadian women overall.

In 1986, 10% of Indo-Chinese men had a university degree, almost the same figure as for all men in Canada (11%). At the other end of the education continuum, 19% of Indo-Chinese men had less than Grade 9, compared with 17% of all Canadian men.

On the other hand, in 1986, one-third (33%) of Indo-Chinese women had less than Grade 9, compared with 18% of all Canadian women. However, there was little difference between the proportions of women with a degree: 6% of Indo-Chinese women were university graduates, compared with 8% of all Canadian women.

Employment

Indo-Chinese men and women are less likely than other Canadians to be employed.

In 1986, 67% of Indo-Chinese men aged 15-64 were employed, compared with 77% of the total male population in this age range. This discrepancy prevailed at all ages. For instance, among 35-44-year-olds, 81% of Indo-Chinese men were working, while the comparable figure for all men in Canada was 89%.

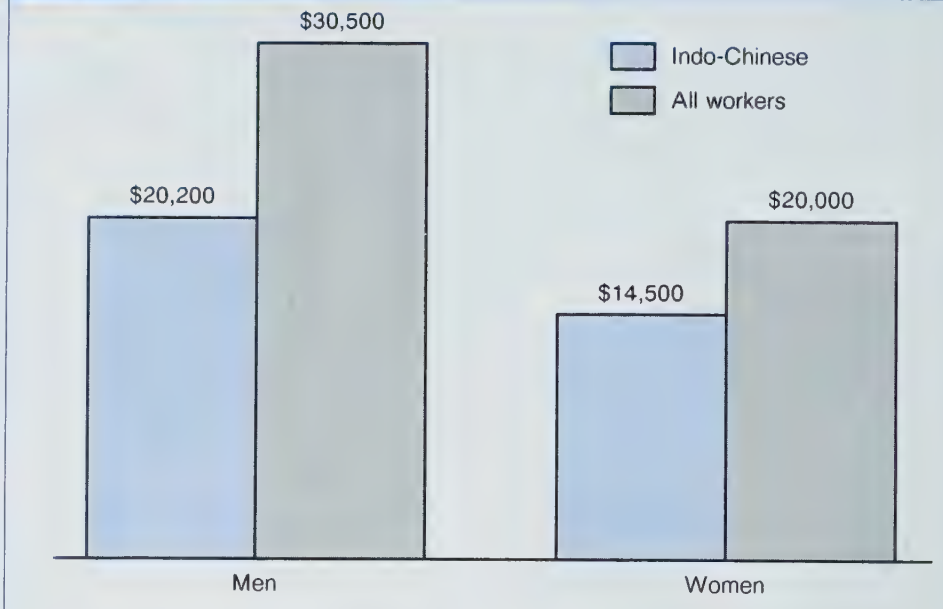
Similarly, a lower proportion of Indo-Chinese women have jobs. In 1986, 55% of Indo-Chinese women aged 15-64 were working, while the corresponding proportion for all women in Canada was 57%. However, at ages 35-44, Indo-Chinese women had an employment rate slightly above the national level for women in this age group: 68% compared with 66%. At other ages, Indo-Chinese women were less likely than other Canadian women to have jobs.

Unemployment

Unemployment among Canada's Indo-Chinese labour force is relatively high. The unemployment rate of Indo-Chinese men aged 15-64 was 14.6% in 1986, considerably above the 9.8% level in the total male labour force. Similarly, unemployment among Indo-Chinese women aged 15-64 was higher than among Canadian women overall: 15.2% versus 11.3%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Employment income of Indo-Chinese and all full-time year-round workers, by sex, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Occupation

The occupational distribution of the Indo-Chinese differs sharply from that of other Canadian workers. For example, Indo-Chinese people are more likely to work in product fabricating or processing/machining occupations. In 1986, 42% of employed Indo-Chinese men held jobs in these fields, compared with 18% of all employed men.

This difference was even more pronounced among women. In 1986, 41% of Indo-Chinese women employed outside the home worked in product fabricating or processing/machining occupations, whereas only about 7% of all employed women were in these types of jobs.

The Indo-Chinese were also more likely than other working Canadians to hold service jobs. However, they were less likely to be employed in managerial, sales, clerical, primary, or construction jobs.

As well, smaller proportions of Indo-Chinese workers than of all employed Canadians were in professional occupations. In 1986, 11% of Indo-Chinese men had professional jobs, compared with 13% of all employed men. The difference was particularly marked among women. The figures were 8% for Indo-Chinese women and 21% for working women overall.

Self-employed

The Indo-Chinese are less likely than other people in Canada to have their own business. In 1986, just 4% of male Indo-Chinese workers were self-employed, compared with 13% of all male workers. Among women, rates were lower, but the pattern was the same: 3% of female Indo-Chinese workers and 5% of all Canadian working women were self-employed.

Employment income

The income of Indo-Chinese Canadians is relatively low. In 1985, the average employment income of Indo-Chinese men who worked full-time all year was $20,200, or 66% of the $30,500 earned by all men working full-time year-round.

Among women, employment incomes were lower, but the discrepancy between Indo-Chinese and other female workers was not as wide as for men. Indo-Chinese women who worked full-time all year earned an average of $14,500 in 1985, 72% of the $20,000 earned by all comparable women.

Pamela M. White *is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

YOUNG OFFENDERS

by Derrick Doige



In 1984, the Young Offenders Act replaced the Juvenile Delinquents Act as Canada's legislation governing the juvenile justice system. During the period immediately following passage of the new Act, the number of adolescents appearing in youth courts increased sharply. More recently, however, the number of young offenders has been relatively stable.[1]

[1] Youth court data exclude Ontario for all years, and the Northwest Territories and the Yukon since 1985-86.

Between 1984 and 1986, the number of young people charged under the Act rose 59%, from 22,000 to 35,200. This rise resulted primarily from the new legislation, which increased the number of young people governed by youth courts in several provinces. The new Act created a uniform age (12-17 years) for young people coming under its jurisdiction, whereas before 1984, each provincial government defined its own upper age limit; in some cases, this was as low as 15.

Since 1986, little change has occurred in the number of young offenders. In 1988, 35,000 adolescents were brought before youth courts, almost the same number as two years earlier. As well, the number of people charged under the Young Offenders Act, as a proportion of all 12-17-year-olds, remained constant at 2.5% during this period.

Provincial differences

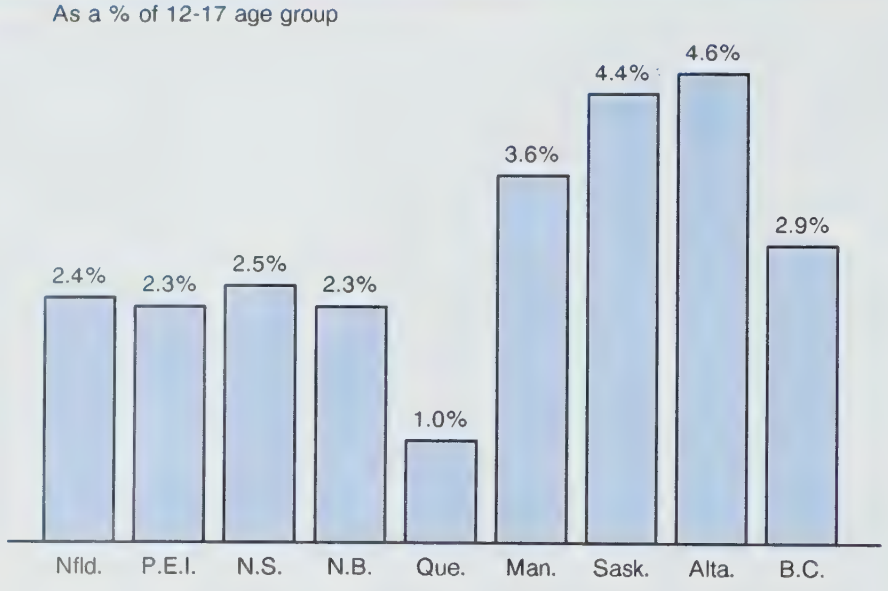
The proportion of 12-17-year-olds brought before youth courts tends to be highest in the Western provinces. In 1988, the number of youths charged under the Young Offenders Act represented 4.6% of Alberta residents aged 12-17 and 4.4% of those in Saskatchewan. The figures were also relatively high in Manitoba (3.6%) and British Columbia (2.9%).

In the Atlantic provinces, the number of adolescents appearing in youth courts made up 2.5% of the population aged 12-17 in Nova Scotia, 2.4% in Newfoundland, and 2.3% in Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick.

By contrast, in Quebec, the proportion of 12-17-year-olds appearing in youth courts was very low. In 1988, people charged under the Young Offenders Act represented just 1.0% of adolescents in that province.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

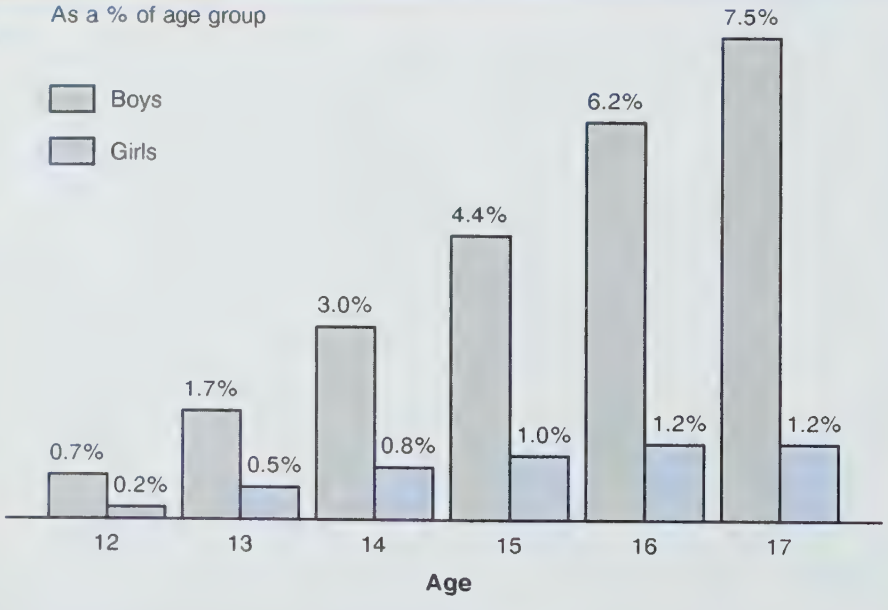
Young people appearing in youth court, by province, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, *The Young Offender in Canada, 1988-89.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Young people appearing in youth court, by age and sex, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, *The Young Offender in Canada, 1988-89.*

Most young offenders male

Boys are far more likely than girls to appear in youth courts. In fact, in 1988, young males accounted for 84% of those charged under the Young Offenders Act. This proportion had not changed since 1984.

In 1988, the number of boys charged represented 4.1% of all boys aged 12-17, while the comparable figure for girls was just 0.8%.

Older youths

Older adolescents are the most likely to appear in youth courts. This is particularly true in the case of males. For example, in 1988, the number of 17-year-old boys charged under the Young Offenders Act represented 7.5% of all boys this age. The corresponding figures were 4.4% at age 15 and 0.7% at age 12.

The same pattern held for girls, although at all ages, smaller proportions of girls than boys were brought before the courts. In 1988, 1.2% of girls aged 17 were charged, while the proportions were 1.0% for 15-year-old girls and 0.2% for 12-year-olds.

Small increase in charges

Between 1986 and 1988, the number of charges processed by youth courts increased slightly. In 1988, there were 106,100 charges against young people, up 10% from 96,200 in 1986.

But as with the number of young offenders, the 1986 figure for charges marked a large increase over 1984, when youth courts heard 59,800 charges. The 61% rise in the number of charges from 1984 to 1986 was, to a large extent, an



effect of implementing the uniform age provision in the Young Offenders Act.

The difference between the number of adolescents appearing in youth courts and the total number of charges exists because many young people are charged with several offences. In 1988, over half of all adolescents appearing in youth courts had at least two charges against them: 20% had two, 19% had three to five, and 8% had six to ten. Also, that year, 5% of adolescent offenders had more than ten charges against them.

Property offences most common

Most charges heard in youth courts are related to property offences such as break and enter, theft, and possession of stolen property. These offences accounted for 62% of the principal charges against adolescents in 1988.

Violent offences constituted another 18% of principal charges against young offenders in 1988. Six out of ten of these charges were assaults, while another quarter were weapons-related offences or robberies

Juvenile justice legislation

The Young Offenders Act came into effect in 1984 and replaced the Juvenile Delinquents Act, which dated back to 1908.

The Juvenile Delinquents Act was based on a child welfare approach to youth crime. The function of the court was not so much to determine innocence or guilt, as to prescribe treatment or care that was in the best interest of the child.

The Young Offenders Act also incorporates the child welfare philosophy. It attempts to balance that approach with both society's demands for protection from crime and the need to protect young people's legal rights. As a result, youth courts are now designed primarily to ascertain innocence or guilt. Youths appearing in court are informed of and guaranteed all the legal rights of the adult court system. Nonetheless, youth courts still acknowledge that young people have special needs and should be held accountable in a manner appropriate to their age and maturity.

Under the Young Offenders Act, four forms of sentences are most commonly used by youth court judges: probation, custody, community service, and fines.

Probation allows young people to serve their dispositions in the community and may include such conditions as maintaining a curfew, attending school, working full-time, or abstaining from the use of alcohol and non-prescription drugs. Most youths must also report regularly to a probation officer.

Custody may be open or secure. Open custody may be served in a halfway house, wilderness camp, or facility designated appropriate by provincial authorities. Secure custody involves admission to facilities specially designated for detainment of young offenders.

Although custodial dispositions for some offences may be for as long as three years, the vast majority are for six months or less. Longer custodial dispositions must be reviewed after one year.

A community service order requires the young person to work unpaid in a community setting for a period not exceeding 240 hours, while fines may be up to $1,000.

Alternative measures

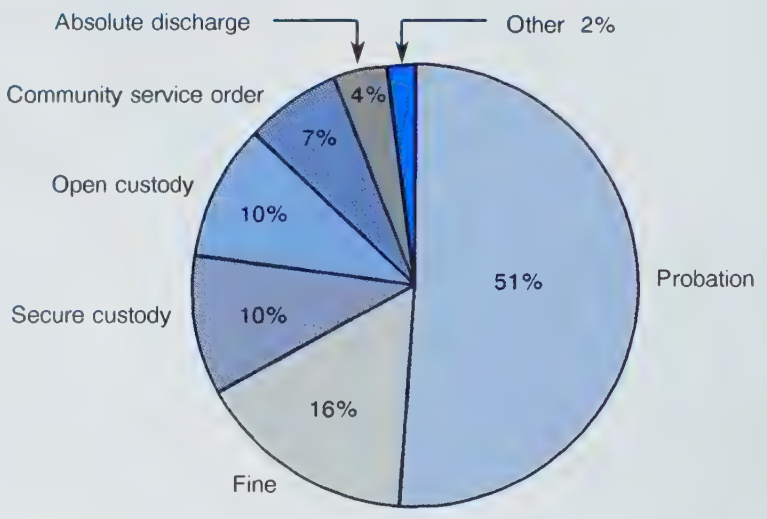
One of the innovative provisions of the Young Offenders Act is the use of alternative measures in dealing with young persons alleged to have committed their first offence. Such measures are usually considered before the adolescent is charged. A few jurisdictions, though, also allow a referral to be made after a charge is laid.

Under the Young Offenders Act, these alternative measures must conform to general guidelines. Each jurisdiction, however, is responsible for formulating and implementing its own alternative measures programs. Consequently, the scope of alternatives available to young people varies considerably from one jurisdiction to another. Alternative measures programs include community work, personal service to the victim, an apology, counselling, education programs, and restitution.

Successful completion of the program results in the charge being dropped or dismissed, or the case being closed without a record of formal conviction.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

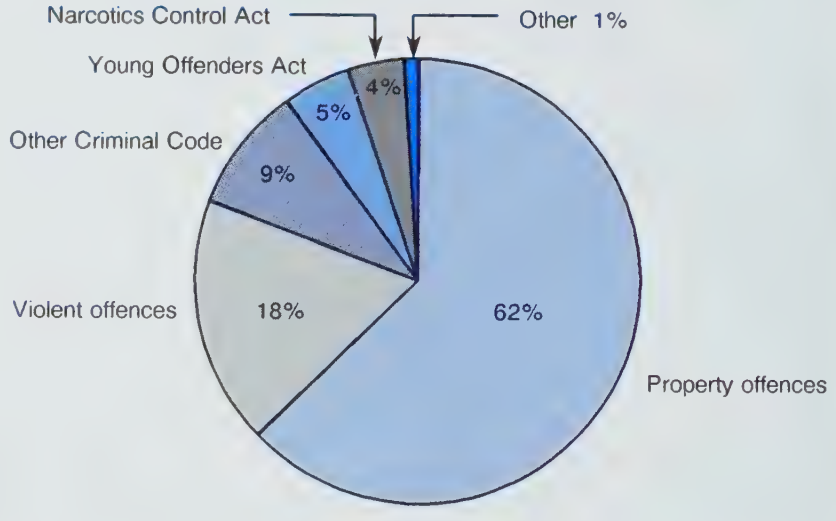
Major disposition of people convicted in youth court, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, *The Young Offender in Canada, 1988-89.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Principal charge against people appearing in youth court, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, *The Young Offender in Canada, 1988-89.*

More serious attacks, such as sexual assault and murder, account for a small proportion of charges against adolescents. About 2% of all charges were for sexual assault, while murder and attempted murder made up 0.2%. Overall, in 1988, 64 young people were charged with either murder/manslaughter (26) or attempted murder (38).

Other Criminal Code offences, such as impaired driving, escape or failure to appear in court, conspiracy, and disorderly conduct, accounted for 9% of principal charges against young offenders in 1988, while 4% were drug-related.

Most found guilty

In 1988, 80% of all adolescents appearing in youth courts were found guilty of at least one charge. In a further 17% of cases, the proceedings were stayed, dismissed, or withdrawn. Only 2% of young people appearing in these courts were found not guilty of any charge. The remaining cases were transferred to another jurisdiction or to the adult court system.

Probation most common

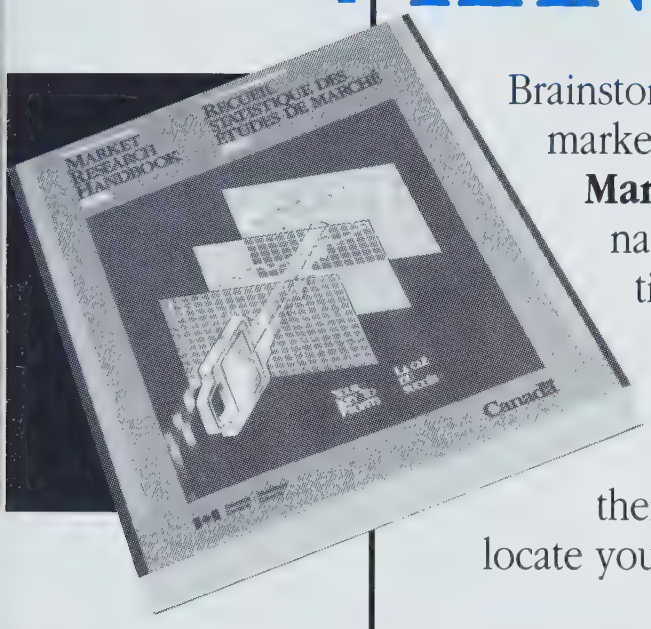
The most common disposition for adolescents who plead guilty or are found guilty in court is probation. In 1988, 51% of young offenders received probation. Another 20% received custodial dispositions, 16% had to pay fines, and 7% were ordered to perform community service work. Absolute discharges were given to 4%, while the remaining 2% received dispositions such as detention for treatment, counselling, and paying restitution.

Boys are more likely than girls to receive a custodial disposition. In 1988, 21% of boys who pleaded guilty or were found guilty received custody as their principal disposition, while the proportion among girls was 13%.

Similarly, older offenders were more likely than younger ones to receive a custodial disposition. For instance, in 1988, 22% of 16- and 17-year-olds received such dispositions, compared with 13% of those aged 12 or 13.

Derrick Doige *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

THE MARKET RESEARCH HANDBOOK 1990



Brainstorming with your colleagues produces some great marketing ideas. But which ones will you use? The **Market Research Handbook 1990** can help you narrow your options before you commit anymore time and resources to developing your strategy.

This handbook is the most comprehensive statistical compendium on Canadian consumers and the businesses that serve them. It helps you to identify, define and locate your target markets.

The fastest way to get off to a good start!

Looking for...

...socio-economic and demographic profiles of 46 urban areas?
...revenue and expenditure data for retailers and small businesses?

The **Market Research Handbook 1990** has it all... and more. It provides information on:

- personal spending
- size and composition of households
- wages and salaries
- investment in Canadian industries
- labour force in various industries
- industry and consumer prices

It has been one of our bestsellers since 1977 for the simple reason that it offers such a range and depth of market data. Save time and money when you're looking for data or finding data sources, keep the **Market Research Handbook 1990** close at hand for easy reference.

The **Market Research Handbook 1990** (Cat. no. 63-224) is $89 in Canada and US$107 outside Canada.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A OT6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service fax your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

LABOUR FORCE TRENDS:
TWO DECADES IN REVIEW

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament



As the 1990s begin, it appears likely that many labour force trends that tarted at some point during the past two lecades will continue. The work force is till growing, largely because of women's ncreasing participation. Also, the labour orce will get older, as the baby-boom ;eneration reaches middle age and beyond. Service industries have gained in mportance, while the proportion of em-)loyment in goods-producing industries ias dropped. As well, although unemploy-nent has returned to pre-recession levels, inemployed people have to look longer,)n average, for another job.

.abour force increasing

The labour force continued to grow in 989, but at a somewhat slower pace than n previous years. In 1989, the number)f people in the labour force increased by 28,000 or 1.7%. By comparison, increases n 1987 and 1988 were about 2% each ear. During the 1980s overall, annual abour force increases averaged 1.9%.

Labour force growth in the 1980s, hough, was considerably slower than in he previous decade. During the 1970s, verage annual increases amounted to 3.2%, as the large generation born during he baby boom entered the job market.

Provincial growth uneven

Growth of provincial labour forces varied considerably during the 1980s. British Columbia led the nation with an average annual increase of 2.4%. This included a 4.2% gain in 1989, by far the largest in Canada that year.

Alberta had the second highest average growth rate (2.2%) during the 1980s, despite the drop in oil prices and the severe recession early in the decade. However, in 1989, Alberta's labour force growth (1.4%) was below the national average.

Growth during the 1980s was especially slow in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, where economies were adversely affected by declining international grain and potash prices, and severe drought conditions. During the decade, the labour force in each of these provinces increased an average of 1.2% annually.

In 1989, Manitoba's labour force grew by just 0.6%. And in Saskatchewan, the labour force actually declined in both 1988 and 1989. The province had a 1.2% drop in the size of its labour force in 1989, following a small downturn of 0.2% the previous year. These were the only declines in any provincial labour force since the recession in the early 1980s.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage change in labour force, by province, 1988-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

Ontario's labour force growth was almost the same as the national average in the 1980s. During this period, annual labour force increases in Ontario averaged 2.0%, with a 1989 figure of 1.9%.

The rate of increase in the number of labour force participants in the Atlantic provinces also roughly matched the national average during the 1980s. Average annual increases amounted to 1.9% in Prince Edward Island and 1.8% in each of the other three Atlantic provinces.

However, in 1989, Newfoundland's labour force grew 3.0%, which was the second largest increase in Canada that year. New Brunswick's labour force also expanded relatively quickly in 1989, increasing by 2.2%. Growth was somewhat slower in Prince Edward Island (1.6%) and Nova Scotia (1.5%).

Quebec's labour force, on the other hand, grew quite slowly during the 1980s, a trend that continued in 1989. The province's labour force increased an average of 1.4% per year during the decade, and just 1.0% in 1989.

More women in the labour force

One of the most notable labour force trends has been the increase in women's participation. In 1989, 58% of all women were in the labour force, up from 49% in 1979 and 38% in 1969.

Over the same twenty years, men's participation rate declined slightly. In 1989, 77% of men were in the labour force, down from 78% in 1969. Almost all of this small drop, however, had taken place by the end of the recession. In fact, men's participation rate has been stable since 1983.

As a result of these changes, women now constitute a much larger proportion of the total labour force. In 1989, 44% of all labour force participants were women, compared with 39% in 1979 and 33% in 1969.

Mothers in the labour force

The past decade witnessed an especially sharp increase in the labour force participation of women with children. Overall, the participation rate of mothers with children under 16 at home was 69% in 1989, up from 49% in 1979.

This trend includes both mothers with pre-school children and those with children in school. In 1989, 62% of women with pre-school-aged children were in the labour force, compared with 43% in 1979. Over the same period, the participation rate of mothers with school-aged children rose from 56% to 75%.

Labour force aging

Another major development of the 1980s has been the aging of the labour force. The average age of labour force participants was 36.3 in 1989, up from 35.5 in 1979. This aging phenomenon was due mainly to the large numbers of the baby-boom generation in the labour force.

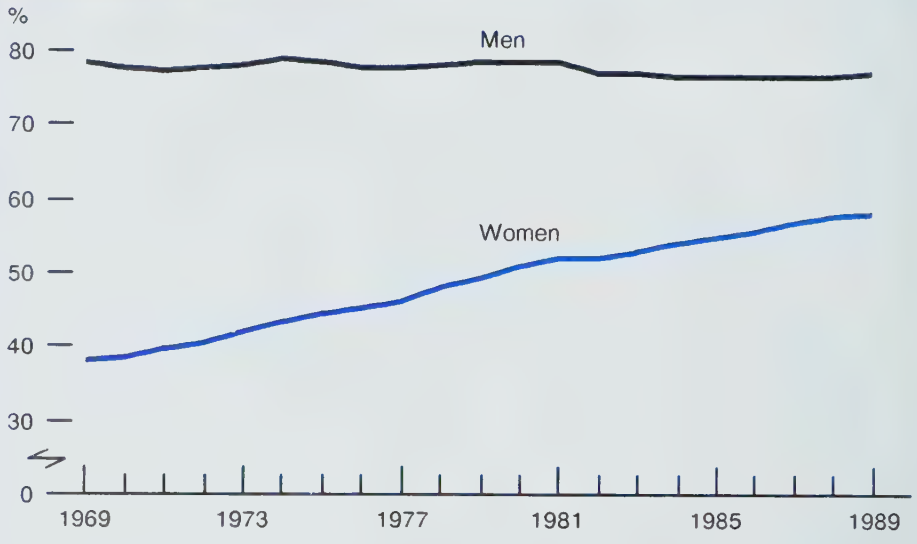
Better educated

Labour force participants are much better educated now than in the past. In 1989, 15% of labour force participants had a university degree, compared with 10% in 1979. As well, a larger proportion of the work force now has at least some education beyond high school. In 1989, 42% of people in the labour force had some postsecondary education, compared with 29% in 1979.

At the other end of the education spectrum, just 9% of labour force participants had less than Grade 9 in 1989, down from 17% in 1979.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

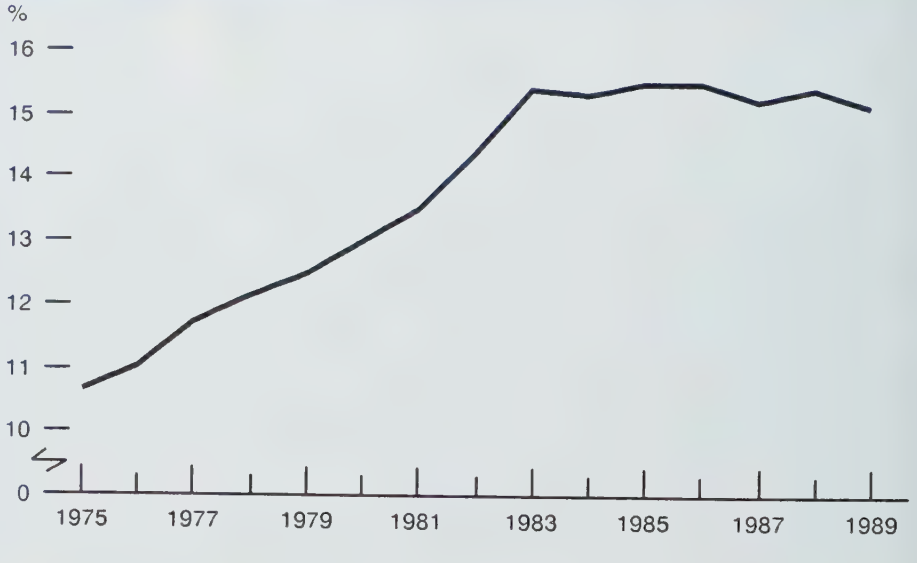
Labour force participation, by sex, 1969-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Part-time employment as a percentage of total employment, 1975-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

These trends are likely to continue as older people, who often have less education, leave the labour force.

Part-time work

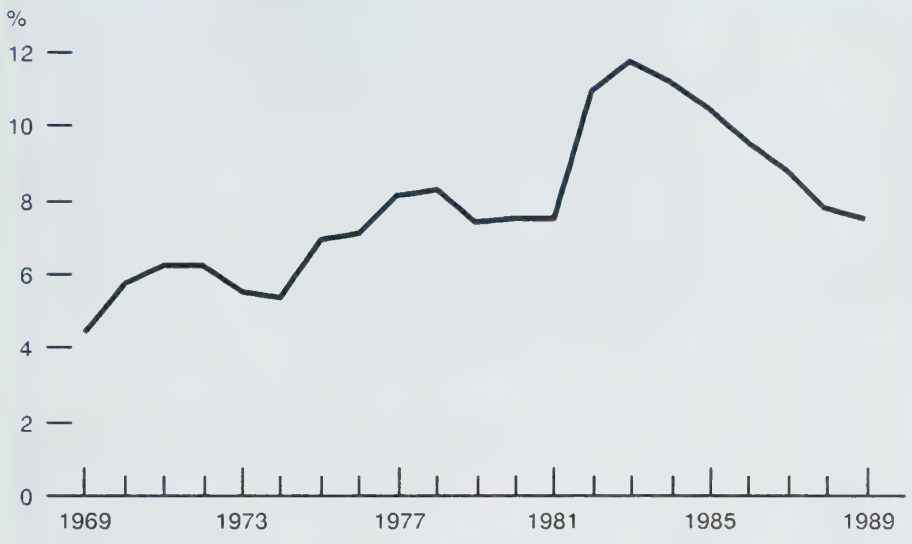
Part-time employment accounted for a larger proportion of total employment at the end of the 1980s than in the mid-1970s. However, since the mid-1980s, the proportion of Canadian workers employed part-time has declined slightly.

In 1989, 15% of all employed people worked part-time, compared with 13% in 1979 and 11% in 1975. The 1989 figure, however, was down somewhat from the level recorded from 1983 to 1986. This drop reflects the slightly faster growth of full-time than part-time employment during the last half of the 1980s. Between 1984 and 1989, the number of full-time jobs increased 14%, compared with 13% for part-time employment.

In contrast, part-time employment growth considerably outpaced full-time during the first half of the decade. Between 1979 and 1984, part-time employment rose 28%, whereas the number of full-time jobs increased only 2%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rate, 1969-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rate, by province, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

Service industries expanding

The distribution of employment by industry has continued to shift over the past decade, with service industries now accounting for more than two-thirds of all workers.

Between 1979 and 1989, service industry employment grew by 29%. In contrast, employment growth in goods-producing industries amounted to just 4%. Consequently, in 1989, 70% of all workers were in service industries; this was up from 65% in 1979.

Unemployment

By the end of the 1980s, unemployment had fallen to pre-recession levels. In 1989, the unemployment rate was 7.5%, the same as in the 1979-1981 period. Although the 1989 rate was down only slightly from 7.8% in 1988, it was much lower than the 1983 peak of 11.8%.

Unemployment varies considerably across the country, with the Eastern provinces experiencing the highest rates. Newfoundland had the highest level of unemployment in 1989, with 15.8% of the province's labour force out of work. As well, Prince Edward Island (14.1%), New Brunswick (12.5%), and Nova Scotia (9.9%) had unemployment rates above the national average (7.5%).

Unemployment was also relatively high in Quebec and British Columbia. In 1989, Quebec's rate was 9.3%, while the rate in British Columbia was 9.1%.

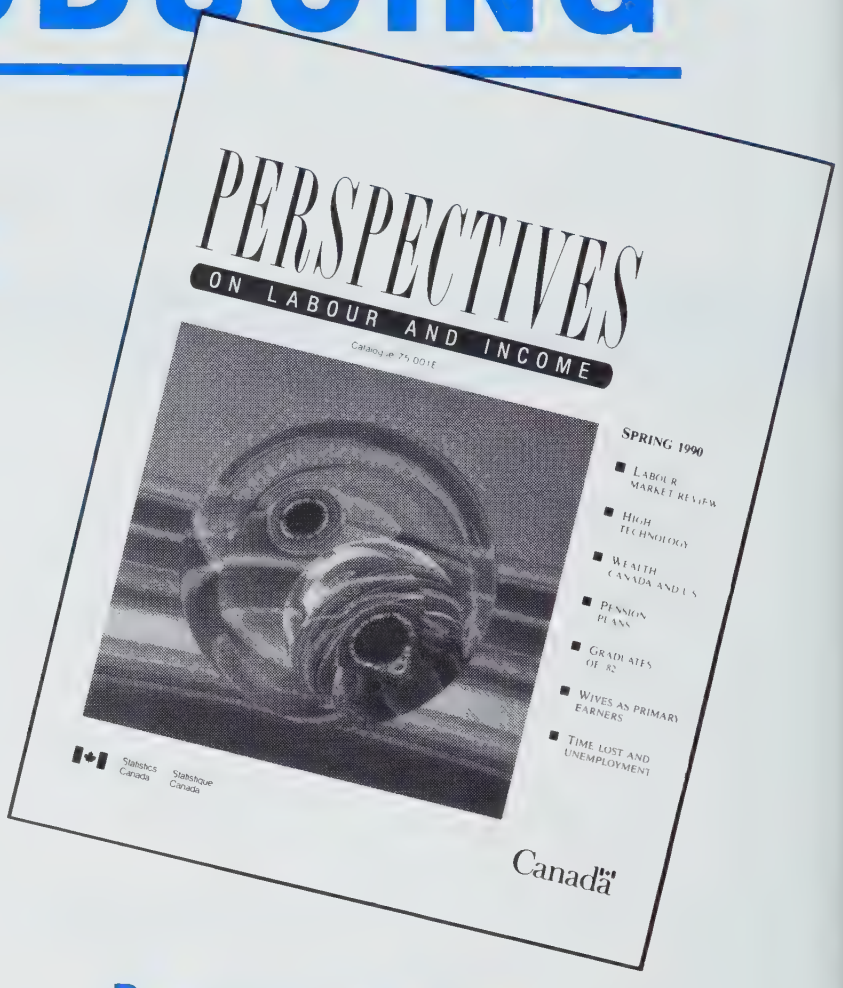
On the other hand, rates in the three Prairie provinces were close to the national average. Ontario had the lowest provincial unemployment rate in 1989, at 5.1%.

Although unemployment had declined to pre-recession levels by the end of the 1980s, the average length of time people were out of a job remained considerably above the figure in the late 1970s. The average job search lasted 3 weeks longer in 1989 than in 1979: 17.9 weeks compared with 14.8 weeks. The 1989 figure, though, was down from a high of 21.8 weeks in 1983.

Jo-Anne B. Parliament *is an Associate Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

- More information on this topic is available in "The labour force: Into the '90s" by Michel Côté in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Vol. 2, No.1, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

INTRODUCING



Canada's essential employment and income information - now in one quarterly journal

If you're responsible for developing employment strategies, negotiating labour contracts, forecasting economic trends, or administering social programs, you'll find ***Perspectives on Labour and Income*** indispensable.

It will keep you up-to-date on the latest Canadian trends in employment... *unemployment insurance, pensions, and industry changes...* and income... *earning gaps between men and women, family income and spending habits,* and more. Every issue of this quarterly journal contains:

- ***Feature Articles***... in-depth information on vital topics: the expansion of service industries; work absences; youth employment; low income families; regional wage disparities and other current issues.
- ***Forum***... an arena for discussion among researchers and readers
- ***Sources***... a compendium of new information sources, news and updates on current research
- ***Key Labour and Income Facts***... lets you monitor the trends with over 60 indicators on a national and provincial level, including employment and unemployment figures; information on earnings and hours of work; labour and family income.

Don't miss a single issue. Order your subscription today!

Perspectives on Labour and Income (Catalogue No. 75-001E) is $53 annually (4 issues) in Canada, US$64 in the United States and US$74 in other countries.

To order, write: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre, listed in this publication.

For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

CHANGES IN WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

by Catherine Shea



Continued increases in women's labour force participation over the last decade have been accompanied by several shifts in the types of jobs they hold. Despite these changes, a large majority of women employed outside the home are still concentrated in occupations in which women have traditionally worked.

In 1989, almost three-quarters of women employed outside the home worked in clerical jobs, service, sales, nursing and related health occupations, or teaching. That year, 72% of all working women held a job in one of these fields. By contrast, just 29% of employed men worked in one of these occupations.

There has been a small decline, however, in the proportion of women holding these jobs since the early 1980s. In 1982, for example, 77% of all working women had been employed in one of these occupations.[1]

[1] It is important to note that the way occupational data are classified by the Labour Force Survey was changed in 1984. This had a noticeable statistical impact on several occupational groupings referred to in this article and, as such, 1982 and 1989 data are not always strictly comparable.

Largest group in clerical jobs

Clerical jobs constitute, by far, the largest single occupational category for women, accounting for almost a third of female employment. In 1989, 31% of all working women were in clerical positions. By contrast, just 6% of employed men were in such jobs.

The share of female employment in clerical occupations, though, did decline during the last decade. In 1982, 34% of all working women held a clerical position.

Nonetheless, women still account for the vast majority of clerical workers. In fact, in 1989, over 80% of clerical workers were women, a slight increase over the 1982 figure of 79%.

Other traditional jobs

There were also relatively large shares of working women in service, sales, nursing and related health occupations, and teaching. Together, these occupations accounted for 41% of working women in 1989, compared with 23% of employed men.

In 1989, 17% of women working outside the home were employed in service positions, while 10% were in sales, 9% were in nursing, and 6% were teachers. This distribution is similar to the pattern in the early 1980s.

As with clerical occupations, these fields continue to have relatively large female components. In 1989, 85% of people employed in nursing and related health occupations were women. They also made up 66% of teachers, 57% of service personnel, and 46% of salespersons. As well, these proportions were all above their 1982 levels.

More managers and administrators

During the last decade, there was a dramatic increase in the employment of women in managerial and administrative positions. Between 1982 and 1989, the number of female managers and administrators more than doubled. As a result, in 1989, 11% of working women were in these occupations, up from 6% in 1982. Also because of the increase, the managerial and administrative category had become the third largest occupational group for women by 1989, whereas it had ranked fifth in 1982. Still, by the end of the decade, women filled just 38% of all managerial and administrative positions, although this was up from 29% in 1982.

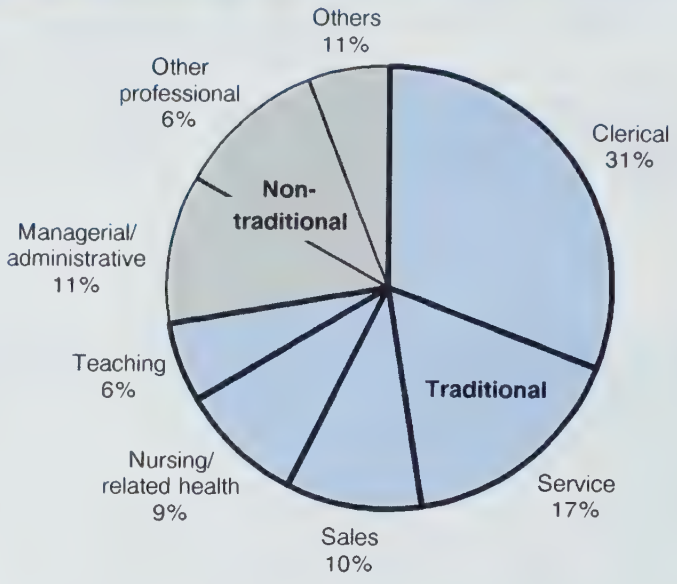
Changes in the managerial and administration group, however, should be interpreted with some caution. Refinement in the way occupational data are classified by the Labour Force Survey in 1984 had a particularly dramatic effect on employment figures in this category. As much as 40% of the increase in the proportion of women employed in this group may be attributable to new occupational definitions. But even without this artificial boost, there was still considerable growth in the employment of women in this category.

Growth in other professions

Participation of women also increased in several other professional occupational categories during the last decade.[2] For example, between 1982 and 1989, the number of women employed in social science professions, excluding university teachers, rose 52%. In fact, by 1989, women made up well over half (57%) of all people working in these fields.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

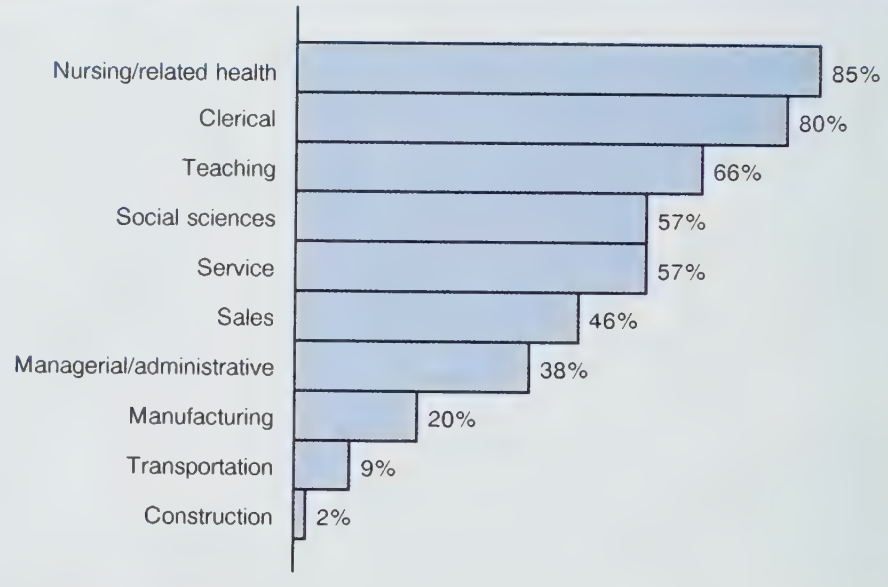
Employed women, by occupational group, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Women as a percentage of occupational groups, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001.

[2] For more detail on women in professional occupations, see Katherine Marshall, **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1989, pages 13-16.



Employed women, by occupational group, 1982 and 1989

	Total women employed		% of employed women		% of employed men	Women as % of total employment in sector	
	1982	1989	1982	1989	1989	1982	1989
	000s				%		
Clerical	1,488	1,680	33.9	30.5	5.9	79.0	80.4
Service	802	938	18.3	17.0	10.3	54.5	56.7
Sales	445	543	10.1	9.9	9.0	39.8	46.4
Nursing/related health occupations	389	472	8.9	8.6	1.2	85.1	85.4
Teaching	248	306	5.7	5.6	2.2	64.3	66.1
Managerial/ administrative	262	589	6.0	10.7	13.7	29.2	38.1
Other professionals:							
Social science	82	125	1.9	2.3	1.3	47.5	57.1
Natural science/ engineering/mathematics	56	88	1.3	1.6	5.3	14.7	19.2
Diagnostic/treatment health professions	12	25	0.3	0.5	0.7	18.3	33.3
Others	89	135	2.0	2.5	2.8	34.5	41.0
Primary	122	121	2.8	2.2	6.7	19.5	20.5
Processing/machining	85	102	1.9	1.8	7.7	14.1	15.9
Product fabricating/ assembling/repairing	193	231	4.4	4.2	11.7	21.2	22.0
Construction	8	16	0.2	0.3	10.4	1.4	2.2
Transportation	24	40	0.5	0.7	6.1	6.0	8.6
Material handling/crafts	77	97	1.8	1.8	4.9	19.5	22.2
Total	**4,382**	**5,508**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**41.3**	**44.1**

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001 and 71-529.

There was also substantial growth in women's share of employment among health professionals such as doctors. The number of women in these occupations more than doubled between 1982 and 1989. As a result, by 1989, one in three people (33%) in these professions was female, compared with fewer than one in five (18%) in 1982.

On the other hand, women still account for only about one in five people employed in natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. In 1989, just 19% of people in these fields were women, although this was up from 15% in 1982.

Few women in blue collar occupations

Women continue to be significantly under-represented in what have traditionally been male-dominated blue collar jobs. In 1989, women made up around 20% of all people employed in both primary occupations and manufacturing jobs such as processing, machining and product fabricating. As well, there was little change in this pattern during the decade.

In both transportation and construction, however, women did make some gains. Still, in 1989, just 9% of people employed in transportation and only 2% of those in construction were women.

Catherine Shea *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

WOMEN IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

by Sandra Cusson

While women continue to make up the majority of public school teachers, they remain under-represented among administrative staff in public elementary and secondary schools. However, women have made moderate gains in administrative positions since the 1970s. As well, once in the administrative ranks, women earn almost the same as their male counterparts.



Few female administrators

Women hold only a small proportion of administrative jobs in public schools. In the 1985-86 academic year, women made up just 15% of principals and vice-principals in these schools, despite the fact that the majority of teachers - 57% - were women.

Female administrators are in the minority at both the elementary and secondary levels. In 1985-86, 20% of all elementary school principals and vice-principals were women, compared with 72% of teachers at this level. At the same time, just 9% of secondary school principals and vice-principals were women, whereas women accounted for 35% of teachers in these schools.

Small increases

Women's representation in public school administration has increased slightly since the late 1970s. In 1985-86, 17% of elementary school principals were women, up from 15% in 1979-80. Over the same period, women's share of elementary vice-principal jobs rose from 20% to 26%.

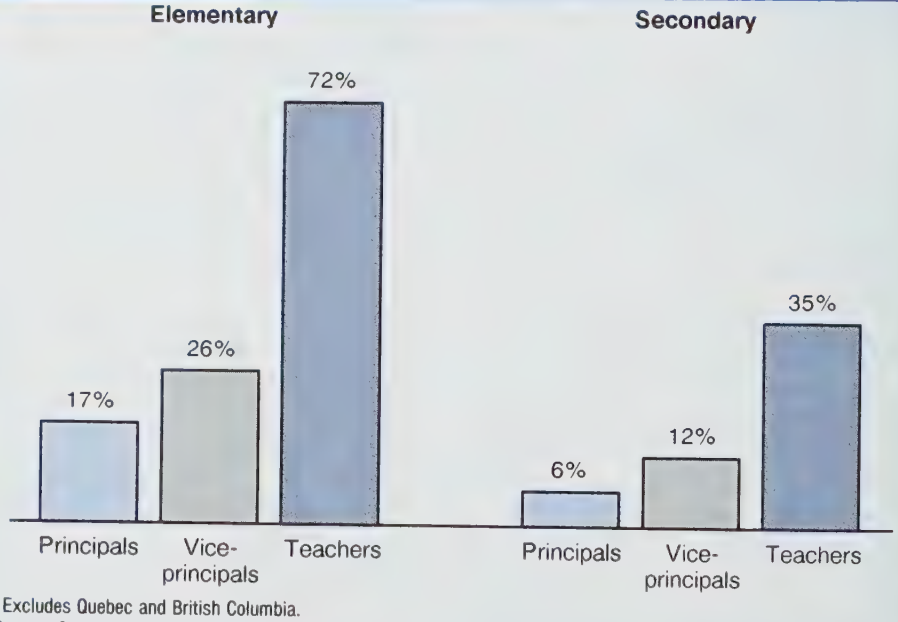
At the secondary level, women accounted for 6% of principals in 1985-86, up from 4% in 1979-80; their share of vice-principal positions rose from 8% to 12%.

Similar education; slightly less experience

The academic qualifications of women and men in public school administration are similar. In fact, at the high school level, a somewhat higher percentage of women than men in administrative positions hold

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Women as a percentage of public school administrators and teachers, 1985-86[1]



[1]Excludes Quebec and British Columbia.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-202.

Women in teaching

While teaching has long been dominated by women, their share of jobs in this profession varied considerably during the last century.

At the time of Confederation, fewer than half of all full-time staff in public schools in Canada were women. Over the next five decades, however, women accounted for almost all the growth in the number of teachers, as teaching was the most accessible profession for women wishing to pursue a career. As a result, by 1920, 83% of teachers were women.

Since then, the proportion of female teachers has fallen, largely because of the entry of a relatively large number of men into the teaching ranks. Consequently, women's share of full-time positions in public schools had fallen to 55% by 1980. The figure remained around that level through the first half of the 1980s, during which time the number of both male and female teachers declined. There were 4% fewer male teachers in the system in 1985 than in 1980, while the number of women fell by just under 3%.

Several differences exist between the qualifications and experience of female and male teachers in public schools.

Female elementary school teachers tend to be less qualified academically than their male colleagues. However, women and men teaching at this level have about the same number of years of classroom experience.

In 1985-86, 69% of female teachers in elementary schools had at least a bachelor's degree, compared with 90% of men. And while just 5% of women teaching in these schools had either a master's or doctoral degree, the proportion for men was 16%.

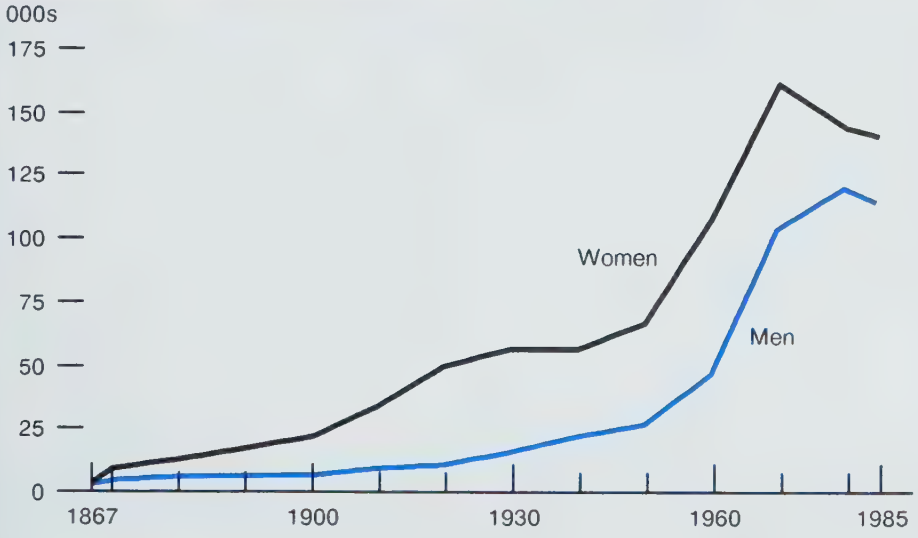
Women and men teaching in elementary schools in 1985-86 each averaged about 13.5 years of teaching experience, although a slightly smaller proportion of female (63%) than of male (70%) staff had been teaching for 12 or more years.

At the secondary level, a greater proportion of female than of male teachers are university graduates. However, women teaching at this level are less likely to have a postgraduate degree, and they generally have less experience than their male counterparts. In 1985-86, 94% of female high school educators had at least a bachelor's degree, compared with 90% of men. Only 11% of female high school teachers, though, had a master's or doctoral degree, compared with 17% of their male colleagues.

Women teaching in high schools in 1985-86 had been doing so for an average of 12 years, compared with 15 years for men. Also that year, a much lower proportion of female than male high school teachers had 12 or more years of experience in the classroom: 58% compared with 77%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Full-time staff in public schools, by sex, 1867-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

postgraduate credentials. In 1985-86, 46% of female administrators in secondary schools had a master's or doctoral degree, whereas the figure for male administrators was 43%. On the other hand, a slightly smaller proportion of female than male administrators in elementary schools had a master's or doctoral degree. In 1985-86, 41% of women in these administrative jobs had a postgraduate degree, compared with 46% of men.

Women in public school administration, though, tend to have somewhat less experience in the school system than their male counterparts. In 1985-86, female administrators at both the elementary and secondary levels had an average of about three years less experience than the men.

Salaries roughly equal

Salaries of female public school administrators are almost the same as those of men in similar positions. In 1985-86, the average annual salary of female elementary school principals with 12 or more years of experience was 96% that of men with the same experience; at the secondary level, the corresponding proportion was 97%.

The discrepancy between the salaries of female and male school administrators was less in 1985-86 than in the early 1970s. In 1972-73, the average salary of female principals with 12 or more years of experience was 91% that of comparable men at the elementary level, and 88% at the secondary level.

Also, while salary differences are small among those who have considerable years of experience, they disappear completely for female and male principals with fewer than 12 years of experience.

Different school sizes

Women are more likely to be administrators in small schools than in larger ones at the elementary level, while the opposite is true at the secondary level.

In 1985-86, women made up 35% of principals and vice-principals in elementary schools with fewer than 100 students, but only 20% of those in schools with more than 100 students.

By contrast, at the high school level, women accounted for 15% of administrators in schools with 1,000 or more students, 12% of those in schools with 400-1,000 students, and 10% in schools with enrolment under 400.

Sandra Cusson *is an analyst with the Census and Demographic Statistics Branch, Statistics Canada.*

Two Decades of Change!

Women in Canada: A Statistical Report is the most extensive compendium on the changing roles, status and lifestyles of Canadian women today.

Compiling 20 years of demographic, economic, social, and cultural data, **Women in Canada** features 190 tables, 65 coloured charts, concise analysis, plus comparative statistics for men.

Whether you're planning social policies, developing marketing strategies, or studying women's issues, **Women in Canada** gives you the information you need — right at your fingertips!



Women in Canada, (Cat. no. 89-503 E) is $35 in Canada, and US$42 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6; or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

PEOPLE IN CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING

by Mary Anne Burke



The Co-operative Housing Program was created to provide an opportunity for low and moderate income Canadians to own a home on a collective basis, without the equity requirements of private homeownership, but with the security of tenure not found in the rental market. A central aim of the program is to achieve an economic and social mix of members within co-operatives, to avoid creating the urban ghettos characteristic of some social housing projects.

Although there is a concentration of low and moderate income Canadians in co-operatives, households are diverse with respect to income, as well as household and family type, age, education, and occupation. In 1986, people most likely to experience housing affordability problems were well-represented in co-operative housing. Thus, young families, families with young children, lone-parent families, families headed by women, low-income families, recent immigrants, members of visible minorities, low-income individuals, and women over age 55 living alone were well-represented in co-operatives. While proportionately more co-operative households were in affordable housing than their rental counterparts, some co-operative members still spent a large share of their income on housing.

Family housing

Co-operative housing, for the most part, is family housing. In 1986, nearly three-quarters (72%) of co-operative units housed families. This compared with 54% of rental and 84% of owner-occupied dwellings. Non-family households occupied just 27% of co-operative units, compared with 45% of rental and 15% of owner households.

A younger population

People in co-operatives tend to be relatively young. In 1986, 65% of household maintainers in co-operatives were under age 45, compared with 62% of rental and 45% of owner households. At the other end of the age spectrum, 13% of co-operative maintainers were aged 65 and over, compared with 17% of renters and 19% of private owners.

More lone parents

Lone-parent families make up a large proportion of co-operative households. In 1986, 30% of co-operative families were headed by a lone parent, compared with 24% of renter and just 8% of owner families.

Women head the majority of all lone-parent families. However, they are more likely to maintain lone-parent families in co-operatives. Women headed 92% of lone-parent families in co-operatives in 1986, compared with 88% in rental and 67% in privately owned accommodations.

Female lone parents in co-operatives are younger than their renter and owner counterparts. In 1986, 77% of female lone parents in co-operatives were under age 44, compared with 75% of renter and just 41% of owner female lone parents.

More families with children

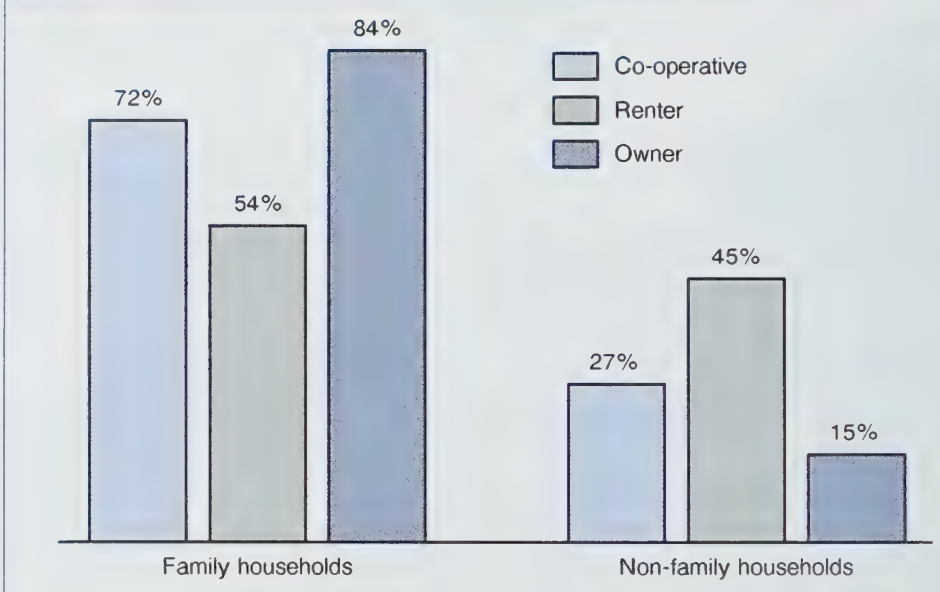
Families in co-operatives are more likely than other Canadian families to have children. While 69% of co-operative husband-wife families had children living at home in 1986, comparable figures were 51% for renter and 66% for owner husband-wife families.

Relatively few families in co-operatives, however, are large. In part, this may reflect the younger age distribution of the co-operative population, as well as the typically small size of the housing units. Only 12% of husband-wife families in co-operatives had three or more children in 1986, compared with 20% in rental housing and 16% in privately owned housing. Similarly, large families were less common among lone-parent families in co-operatives. Just 9% of co-operative lone parents had three or more children, compared with 13% of renter and 14% of owner families.

Children in co-operatives are younger than those in privately owned housing,

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

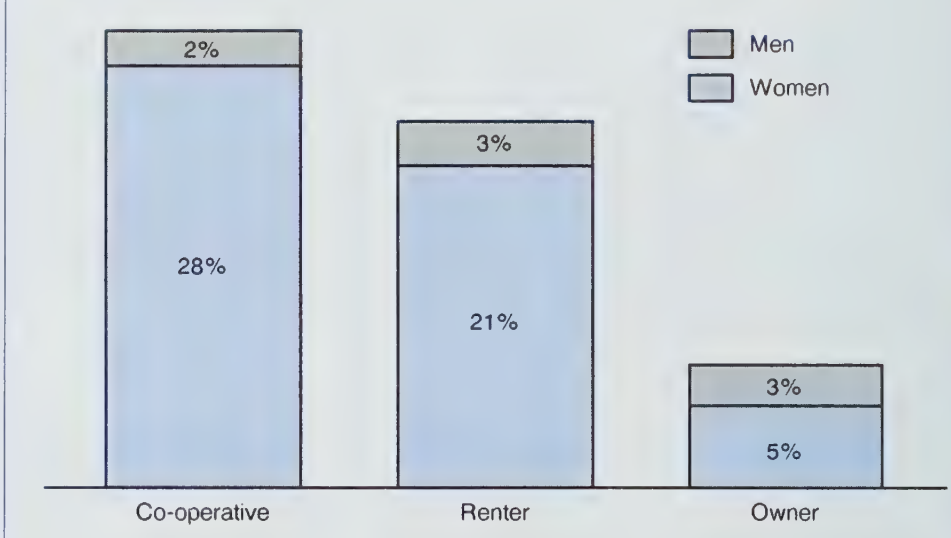
Household type, by tenure, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of all families headed by lone parents, by tenure, 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-107 and 1986 Census of Canada.

but of similar age to those in rental housing. In 1986, 71% of children living in co-operatives and 70% in rental accommodations were under age 15, compared with 58% in privately owned housing. On the other hand, 17% of co-operative children were aged 18 and over, compared with 19% in rental housing and 27% in privately owned housing.

Women living alone

Most people living alone are women. This is particularly so in co-operatives. In 1986, 67% of people living alone in co-operatives were women, compared with 59% of both renters and owners living alone. This tendency is more pronounced at older ages. For example, at ages 55-64, women accounted for 81% of people living alone in co-operatives, compared with 63% of both renters and owners living alone. Among those aged 65 and over, the figures were 83% for co-operatives, 81% for renters, and 74% for owners.

More immigrants

A relatively high percentage of co-operative members are immigrants. Nearly a quarter (24%) of those living in co-operatives in 1986 were immigrants, compared with 16% for the Canadian population.

Many immigrants living in co-operatives have recently arrived in Canada and settled into co-operatives after an initial period of acculturation. In 1986, 23% of immigrants in co-operatives had been in Canada 4 to 8 years, whereas this was the case for 12% of all immigrants. An additional 39% had been in Canada 8 to 18 years, compared with 31% of all Canadian immigrants. In fact, 70% of immigrants living in co-operatives had arrived in Canada since 1967; the figure for all Canadian immigrants was just 49%. Proportionately more immigrants living in co-operatives have come from Asia, South America, and the Caribbean. This reflects recent migration streams from these countries, while earlier migration to Canada tended to be primarily from Europe.

Compared with Canada overall, co-operatives in 1986 were home to double the proportion of immigrants from South America (8% versus 4%), and higher proportions from the Caribbean and Bermuda (8% versus 5%), Africa (5% versus 3%), and Asian countries other than India (17% versus 14%).

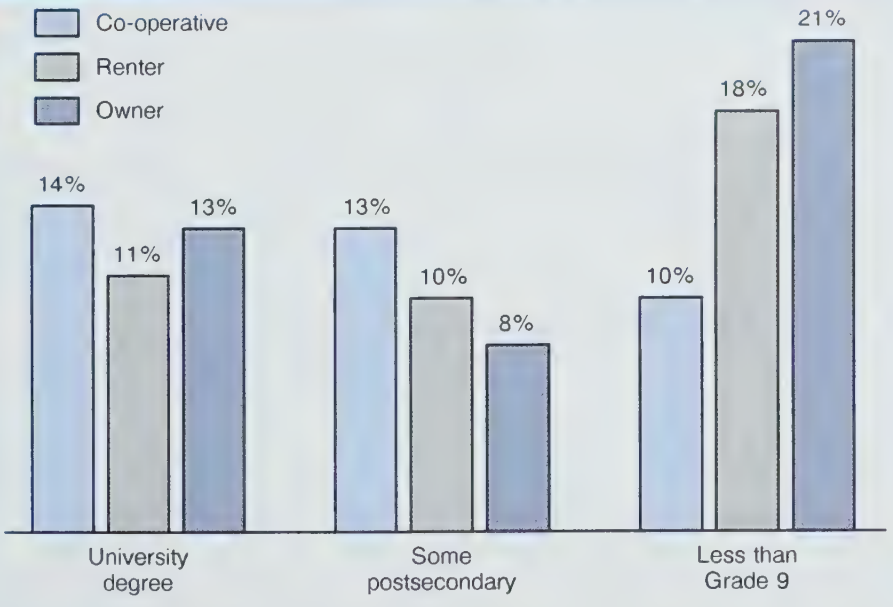
Percentage distribution of children living at home, by age of children and tenure of dwelling, 1986

Age of children	Co-operative owners	Renters	Private owners
		%	
Under age 6	31	33	22
6-14	40	37	36
15-17	12	11	13
18-24	13	14	21
25 and over	4	5	7
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Educational attainment of household maintainers, by tenure, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Minority groups

People with physical disabilities have been one of the main minority groups served by housing co-operatives. In 1989, 362 co-operatives had almost 1500 units (2.4% of all co-operative units) with design features required by people in wheelchairs.

Other minority groups are also represented in housing co-operatives. Proportionately more Canadians of Black, Chinese, and South Asian origin live in co-operative housing than in the traditional housing market. Of all people living in co-operatives in 1986, 3% were of Black origin, another 3% were of Chinese origin, and a further 2% were of South Asian ethnic origin. In comparison, each of these groups made up just 1% of the overall Canadian population.

Education

People in co-operatives have higher educational attainment than either renters or owners. In 1986, 14% of co-operative maintainers had a university degree, compared with 11% of renters and 13% of owners. In addition, 13% had completed some postsecondary education, compared with 10% of renters and 8% of owners. On the other hand, 10% of co-operative maintainers had completed less than Grade 9, compared with 18% of renters and 21% of owners.

Since younger people tend to have higher educational attainment than those in older age groups, the younger age profile of the co-operative population may account for some of the variation. However, some differences persisted across all age groups. For example, among those under age 25, only 1% of co-operative

maintainers had completed less than Grade 9, compared with 3% of renters and 5% of owners. Likewise, 26% of co-operative maintainers aged 65-74 had completed less than Grade 9, compared with 43% of renters and 40% of owners in the same age group.

Higher labour force activity

People living in co-operatives generally are more likely to participate in the labour force than Canadians overall. While 70% of co-operative members aged 15 and over were in the labour force in 1986, the figure for the total Canadian population was 66%.

At the same time, unemployment levels of co-operative members are slightly higher than those of other Canadians.In 1986, 12% of people in co-operatives were unemployed, compared with 10% of the overall Canadian labour force.Since unemployment levels tend to be higher among younger age groups, the young age distribution in co-operatives may account for some of the difference.

More working parents

Compared with both owner and renter families, proportionately more spouses in co-operative families are in the labour force. While both spouses in 63% of co-operative husband-wife families were in the labour force in 1986, the proportion was 57% for comparable renter families and 53% for husband-wife owner families.

Among lone parents, differences in labour force participation rates are even greater. In co-operatives, 79% of all lone parents were in the labour force in 1986, compared with just 60% of renter lone parents and 63% of owner lone parents.

Occupation

Household maintainers in co-operatives, like both renter and owner maintainers, have diverse occupations. Clerical jobs were the most common occupation



among co-operative household maintainers. This is not surprising, given that women, who traditionally have been employed predominantly in clerical positions, maintain a large proportion of co-operative households.

In 1986, 17% of household maintainers in co-operatives had clerical occupations, compared with 12% of renters and 7% of owners. Managerial occupations accounted for the next largest group of co-operative maintainers. In 1986, 15% of household maintainers in co-operatives fell into this group, compared with 13% of renter and 12% of owner household maintainers.

Professional (8%), service (8%), and product fabricating (7%) occupations were the next most common occupational groups in co-operatives, followed by sales (5%), processing (4%), construction (3%), and primary occupations (1%).

Income

Many co-operative households are below Statistics Canada's low-income cutoffs.In 1985, 25% of family households and 40% of people living alone in co-operatives had low incomes. This compared with 33% of families and 41% of people living alone in rental situations, and 10% of families and 32% of people living alone in owner-occupied dwellings.

In co-operatives, however, people with low incomes are well integrated with people from all income levels. In 1985, 42% of co-operative households had incomes below $20,000, compared with 50% of rental and 30% of owner households. At the same time, 38% of co-operative households, compared with 34% of both renter and owner households, had incomes between $20,000 and $39,999. Another 21% of co-operative households, compared with 16% of renter and 44% of owner households, had incomes above $40,000.

Income is closely associated with life cycle stage and household type. People at either end of the age spectrum tend to have the lowest incomes. Women living alone and lone-parent families, particularly those headed by women, also tend to have low incomes. In co-operatives, the income distribution by age and household type follows the expected pattern, slightly above renter but below owner households, with one exception. That is, people living alone in co-operatives tend to have lower incomes than both their renter and owner counterparts. For example, 92% of people under age 25 living alone in co-operatives had incomes below $20,000 compared with 84% of comparable renters and 65% of owners. Similarly, 80% of people aged 55-64 living alone in co-operatives (typically women) had incomes below $20,000, compared with 72% of comparable renters and 62% of owners.

Co-operative ownership

The Co-operative Housing Program was officially created by the federal government in 1973, when the National Housing Act was amended to allow mortgage financing for co-operatives.

In 1989, there were almost 61,000 housing units in 1,560 not-for-profit continuing co-operatives under federal and provincial housing programs. While this was up from almost 23,000 units in 1981 and only 2,000 in 1973, co-operatives still accounted for just 0.6% of all Canadian housing units in 1989.

The growth of this type of housing is discussed in more detail in the article, "Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form," by Mary Anne Burke in the Spring 1990 issue of Canadian Social Trends.

Affordable housing

Households paying 30% or more of their income on shelter costs have a potential housing affordability problem. Co-operative households are less likely than renter households to be in this situation. In fact, the percentage of co-operative household income spent on shelter more closely resembles owner- than renter-occupied households. In 1986, just 18% of one-family co-operative households spent more than 30% of their income on shelter, compared with 30% of renter and 12% of owner one-family households.

About the data

The data in this study are from the 1986 Census of Canada. Co-operative households in the Census were identified using individual postal codes. Overall, 19,980 units, or 41% of co-operative units in 1986, were covered in the study. Co-operatives included were most typically large, urban co-operatives, primarily from Ontario westward.

Most rural, small, and geographically scattered co-operatives could not be identified by postal code, and were therefore excluded. Since the majority of co-operatives in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec fit this description, a large share of these co-operatives were excluded from the study.

To reduce this bias, data were weighted to reflect the provincial distribution of co-operatives in Canada.

Percentage distribution of household maintainers, by occupation and tenure of dwelling, 1986

	Co-operative owners	Renters	Private owners
		%	
Professional	8	7	13
Managerial	15	13	12
Clerical	17	12	7
Sales	5	6	6
Service	8	10	6
Primary	1	2	4
Processing	4	4	6
Product fabricating	7	6	7
Construction	3	4	7
Other	32	36	32
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Associate Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

DECLINE IN THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN

by Mary Sue Devereaux

While the majority of Canadian families[1] have children living at home, the number of children per family has decreased during the past two decades. Specifically, the proportion of husband-wife families with three or more children has declined sharply, while there have been relative increases in the shares of families with one or two children, and of couples with no children at home.

This trend toward smaller families is not a recent development. In fact, the long-term downturn in family size started early in the century, although it was temporarily reversed during the baby boom of the 1950s and 1960s.



Large families down

One of the most striking aspects of the changing composition of Canadian families has been the decline in the proportion of families with a large number of children. In 1986, just 14% of husband-wife families had three or more children at home, down considerably from 32% in 1966.

There was an especially sharp decline in the share of families with five or more children. In 1986, only 1% of husband-wife families had this many children living at home, down from 9% in 1966.

The decline in the percentage of families with at least three children occurred regardless of the husband's age. The steepest drop was among families in which the husband was under 35. In 1986, 10% of these families had three or more children; twenty years earlier, the proportion had been 28%.

More small families

Since the baby-boom years, families with one or two children living at home have become more common. In 1986, 22% of husband-wife families had one child, and 27% had two children. These figures were up from 18% and 21%, respectively, in 1966.

Increases in the proportion of small families occurred in all age groups. However, the most striking increase was among families with the husband aged 35-44. In 1986, 61% of these families had either one or two children, up from 37% in 1966.

No children at home

The percentage of families without children at home has also risen in the last two decades. Such families accounted for 37% of all husband-wife families in 1986, up from 29% in 1966.

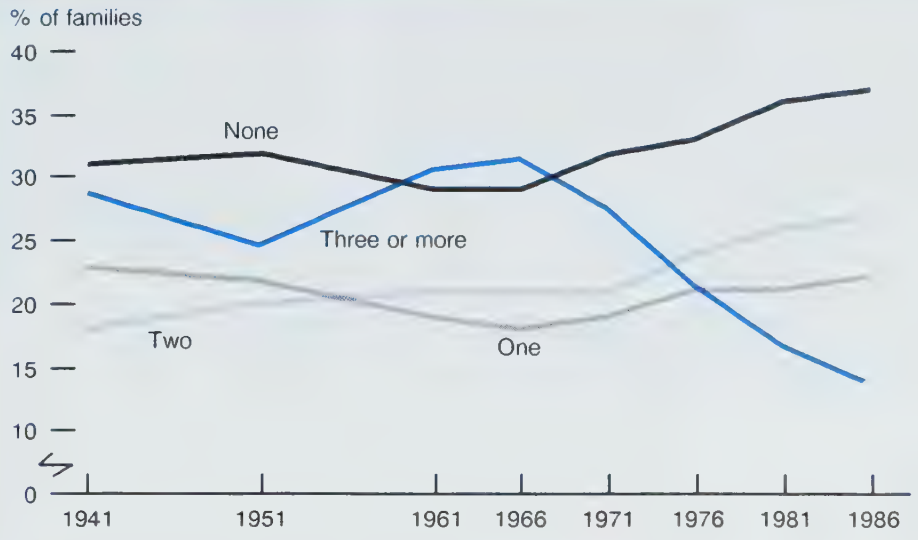
Families with no children at home include all couples who have chosen to remain childless as well as younger couples who have not yet had children and older couples who have reached the empty-nest stage.

While the proportion of families with no children has risen among couples at all ages, the increase was particularly large among young families. The proportion of couples with the husband under age 35, who had no children, rose to 36% in 1986 from 21% in 1966.

Over the same period, the proportion of families without children at home rose from 8% to 13% among couples with the husband aged 35-44, and from 19% to 23% in families with the husband aged 45-54.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Husband-wife families, by number of children at home, 1941-1986[1]



[1] Data for 1941-1966 include only children under age 25.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Husband-wife families, by number of children at home and age of husband, 1966 and 1986

Age of husband	Number of children							
	None		One		Two		Three or more	
	1966	1986	1966	1986	1966	1986	1966	1986
	%							
Less than 35	21	36	25	26	26	28	28	10
35-44	8	13	12	17	25	44	55	26
45-54	19	23	20	26	23	31	38	20
55 and over	67	69	16	19	8	8	8	4
Total	**29**	**37**	**18**	**22**	**21**	**27**	**32**	**14**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The families least likely to include children are those in which the husband is aged 55 and over. In 1986, 69% of families with the husband in this age range had no children living at home; this was up only slightly from 67% in 1966.

Wide provincial variations

The number of children per husband-wife family varies across the country. Families are generally more likely to be large in the Atlantic region, while they are more likely to have no children living at home in British Columbia.

In 1986, the proportions of families with three or more children were highest in Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, at 24% and 21%, respectively. As well, figures were relatively high in New Brunswick (17%) and Nova Scotia (16%).

Saskatchewan also had a high proportion of large families. In 1986, 18% of husband-wife families in Saskatchewan had at least three children.

On the other hand, just 13% of families in Quebec and 12% in British Columbia had three or more children. In the remaining provinces, the percentage was around 15%.

Couples with no children at home were most common in British Columbia, where they accounted for 43% of all husband-

[1] A family consists of a husband and wife, with or without never-married children of any age living at home, or a lone parent with one or more never-married children at home. Other relatives living in the same household are not included in this concept of family.

Births

The decline of large families reflects fertility patterns during the last quarter century.

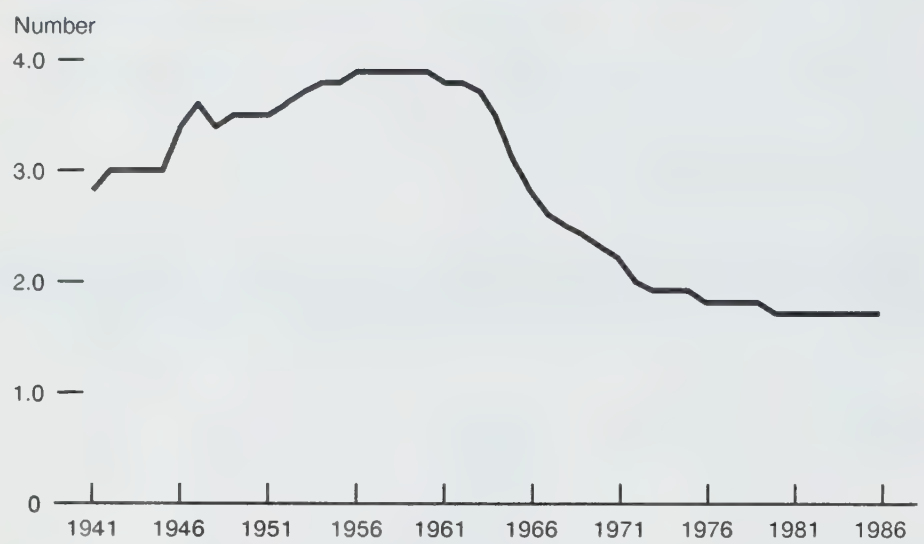
The annual number of births in 1986 was 373,000, down from almost 480,000 in the late 1950s and early 1960s.

The number of births per woman aged 15-49 dropped even more dramatically. From 3.9 in 1959, the rate fell to 1.7 in 1986. In fact, since 1972, the fertility rate in Canada has been below the replacement level of 2.1.

This decrease in fertility is particularly evident in the proportion of births that are the mother's third or subsequent child. In 1986, just 21% of births were a third or later child. By contrast, in 1960, the figure had been 52%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

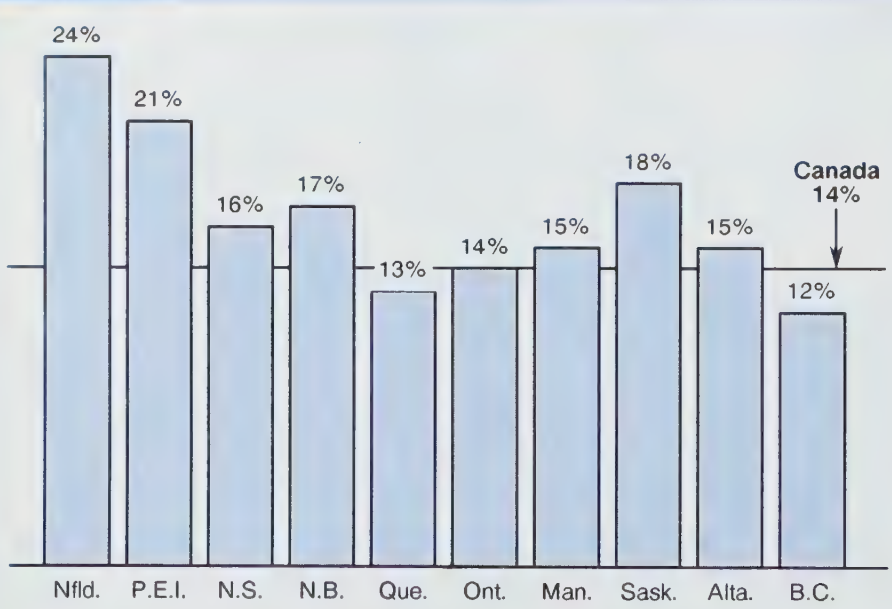
Births per woman aged 15-49, 1941-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of husband-wife families with three or more children, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

wife families. The figure was also relatively high in Manitoba and Saskatchewan (both 39%). By contrast, at just 24%, Newfoundland had the lowest percentage of couples with no children at home.

Lone parents

Lone-parent families tend to have fewer children than husband-wife families that have children. In 1986, more than half (57%) of lone-parent families had only one child, whereas the figure for husband-wife families was about a third (35%).

In contrast, 30% of lone-parent families had two children at home in 1986, compared with 43% of husband-wife families. And while 13% of lone-parent families had three or more children in 1986, the proportion for husband-wife families was 23%.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2
Immigration[1]	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024
Emigration[1]	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486
- goods sector (000s)	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740
- services sector (000s)	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745
Total unemployment (000s)	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018
Unemployment rate (%)	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5
Part-time employment (%)	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,110	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	*
% of families with low income	12.6	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.0	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	836.6[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.4	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.1	5.9	5.9	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	949[p]
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,517[p]
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	135,536.6	141,988.2	143,661.4	148,891.5	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.1	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.5	28.1	27.1	26.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.0	+4.4	+3.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0
Urban housing starts	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price ($ Can.) In Canada	Price ($ Can.) Elsewhere
71-001	The Labour Force	$17.00	$20.40
71-201	Historical Labour Force Statistics	$58.00	$70.00
71-529	Labour Force Annual Averages	$64.00	$76.80
82-602	Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada	$25.00	$30.00
84-205	Marriages and Divorces: Vital Statistics, Vol. II	$12.00	$13.00
93-107	Families: Part II	$43.00	$53.00
93-110	Schooling and Major Field of Study	$60.00	$70.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Canadian Society

Cat. No. 71-207 - Canada's Youth: A Profile of their Labour Market Experiences ($12/$14/$17)

Cat. No. 71-208 - Canada's Older Workers: A Profile of their Labour Market Experiences ($12/$14/$17)

Cat. No. 71-209 - Canada's Part-time Workers: A Profile of their Labour Market Experiences ($12/$14/$17)

Cat. No. 85-205 - Canadian Crime Statistics ($39/$47/$55)

Education

Cat. No. 81-208 - Financial Statistics of Education ($39/$47/$55)

Cat. No. 81-210 - Elementary-Secondary School Enrolment ($26/$31/$36)

Cat. No. 81-219 - Tuition and Living Accommodation Costs at Canadian Universities ($22/$26/$31)

Industry, Transportation and Finance

Cat. No. 25-201 - Logging Industry ($30/$36/$42)

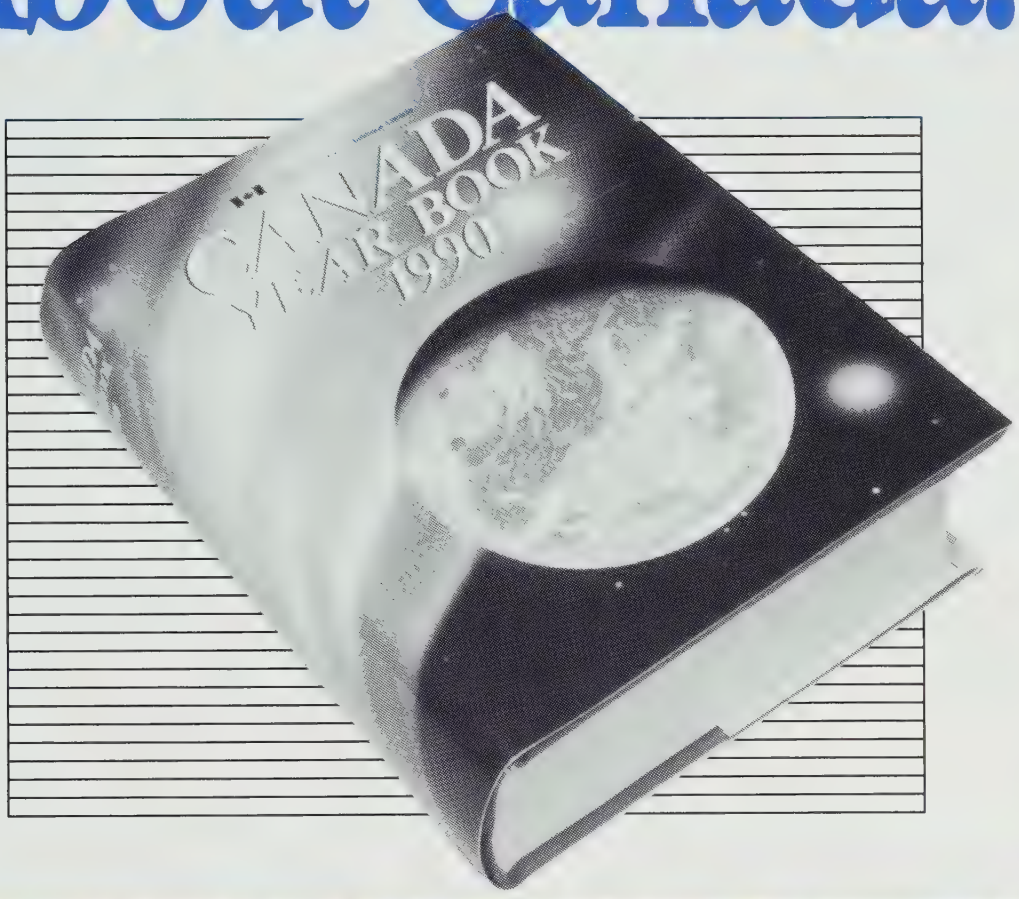
Cat. No. 31-203 - Manufacturing Industries of Canada: National and Provincial Areas ($61/$73/$85)

Cat. No. 52-216 - Rail in Canada ($45/$54/$63)

Cat. No. 53-222 - Trucking in Canada ($45/$54/$63)

Cat. No. 67-202 - Canada's International Investment Position ($37/$44/$52)

Questions About Canada?



FIND YOUR ANSWERS IN THE CANADA YEAR BOOK 1990

rusted by business people, brarians, educators and journal-ts for more than 120 years, the **anada Year Book** is THE eference source to consult on anada.

The **Canada Year Book 1990** overs a wide range of topics... rom education to communica-ons, public finance to inter-ational trade, and more.

Over 850 pages of text accom-anied by 500 tables, 75 charts and computer generated maps, depict key social and economic developments in Canada.

Your one stop encyclopedia for all the latest facts and figures about Canada and Canadians, the **Canada Year Book 1990** is your ready reference source.

The **Canada Year Book 1990** (Cat. no. 11-402E) is priced at $49.95 plus $5.05 postage and handling in Canada and US $49.95 plus US $20.05 postage and handling outside Canada.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A OT6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

11
-008

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E



Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada



ROCK SOLID INFORMATION

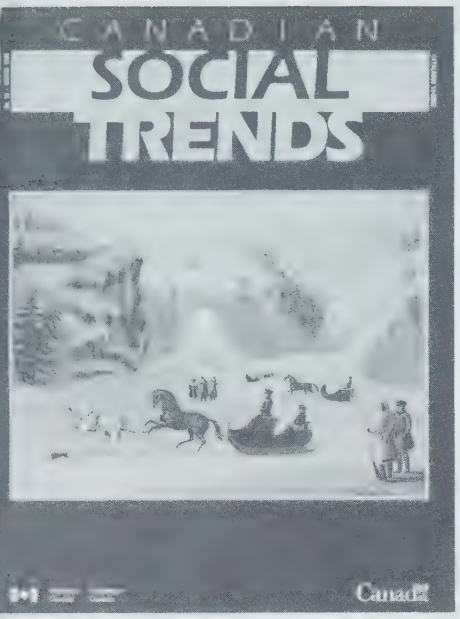
Get a focus on Canada's markets and business opportunities with **the** source of reliable information...Statistics Canada and its unequaled family of outstanding publications and services.

Relying on Statistics Canada means you're building your decisions on hard facts assembled by a professional organization with a world-wide reputation for scrupulous accuracy and complete reliability.

Join the thousands of corporations and individuals who base their Canadian business decisions on Statistics Canada publications. Year after year.

For more information on Statistics Canada's extensive range of publications and information services, please call toll-free 1-800-267-6677.

At Statistics Canada, we provide information you can build on.



over: ***The Ice Cone, Montmorency Falls*** (c1845) il on canvas, 34.3 x 45.9 cm. Collection: National allery of Canada.

About the Artist:

obert C. Todd (1809-1866) was born in England nd immigrated to Quebec in 1834. He recorded uebec winter life in a series of horse-and-sleigh aintings, and was commissioned to paint horse ortraits for various officers and sportsmen. Todd s also known for his views of Montmorency Falls nd the Quebec docks. From the mid-1850s until is death, Todd lived in Toronto.



CONTENTS

No. 19 - WINTER 1990

What Canadians are Eating 2
by Tullio Caputo and Neil Poutanen

The General Social Survey 7

Perceptions of the Justice System 8
by Holly Johnson and Vincent Sacco

Computer Literacy 13
by Graham S. Lowe

Sleep Patterns 16
by Tamara Knighton

Children with Disabilities 18
by Katherine Nessner

Reading Skills 22
by Gilles Montigny

Performing Arts 25
by Mary Cromie

Commuting Time 29
by Judith Frederick

Social Indicators 31

1990 Annual Index of Articles — Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editors	Colin Lindsay; Mary Sue Devereaux
Associate Editors	Jo-Anne B. Parliament; Mary Anne Burke
Contributing Editor	Katherine Nessner
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Health and Welfare Canada; Photo Centre, SSC; Griffe Design; Michael Slobodian
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	L. Brazeau, C. Bronson, J. Coallier, J. Collins, J. Dessureaux-Beaupré, A. Furrie, S. Gagnon, A. Haman, J. Herron, A. Jones, M. Jones, M. Lisciotto, C. Prévost, C. Richard, T. Ring, M. Saint-Laurent, E. Scott, T. Shields, C. Strike, N. Turcotte

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Regional Industrial Expansion. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1990, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677.** Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends,** 17th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. Extracts from this publication may be reproduced for individual use without permission provided the source is fully acknowledged. However, reproduction of this publication in whole or in part for purposes of resale or redistribution requires written permission from the Programs and Publishing Products Group, Acting Permissions Officer, Crown Copyright Administration, Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Canada K1A 0S9. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698



WHAT CANADIANS ARE EATING

by Tullio Caputo and Neil Poutanen

The diet of Canadians is different now than it was in the past. In particular, red meat consumption is lower than in the mid-1970s, while the amount of poultry and fish eaten has increased. Low-fat milk, cheese, and yogurt, as well as fresh vegetables, have also gained in popularity. In contrast, both egg and butter consumption have dropped.

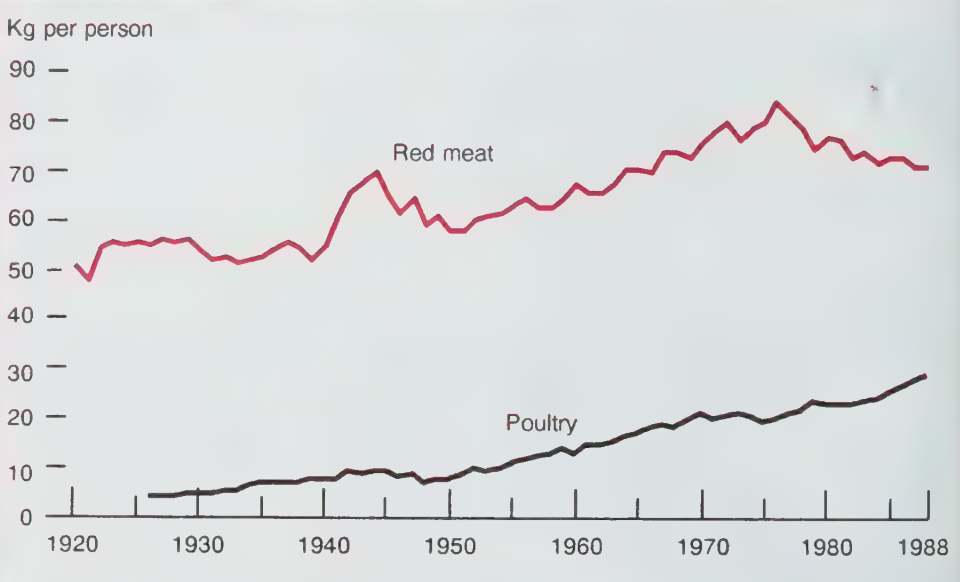
Changes in eating habits have been driven by a variety of factors. In recent years, Canadians have been exposed to an increasing amount of information about nutrition and the benefits of a healthy diet. Scientific evidence has linked certain foods to heart disease, cancer, and other illnesses. The availability and cost of various foods, the development of suitable substitutes for expensive or undesirable products, and marketing strategies also influence consumption patterns. In addition, the changing age and lifestyle profile of the population affects the type and quantity of foods eaten.

Changes in meat consumption

From early in the century until the mid-1970s, both red meat and poultry consumption increased. Between 1920 and 1976, annual red meat (beef, pork, mutton, and veal) consumption rose from 51 kg to 84 kg per person. Over roughly the same

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average annual consumption of red meat and poultry, 1920-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Electronic Data Dissemination Division.

period, the average amount of poultry (chicken, turkey, and other fowl) eaten by each person rose from just 3 kg to 20 kg.

Since the mid-1970s, however, consumption trends for these two types of meat have diverged. Average annual red meat consumption dropped to 71 kg in 1988. This drop was driven almost exclusively by a decline in the amount of beef eaten. Between 1976 and 1988, average beef consumption fell from 51 kg to 38 kg per person.

In contrast, poultry consumption continued to increase, such that by 1988, each person ate an average of 29 kg. Chicken consumption accounted for most of this increase, rising from 15 kg per person in 1976 to 23 kg in 1988.

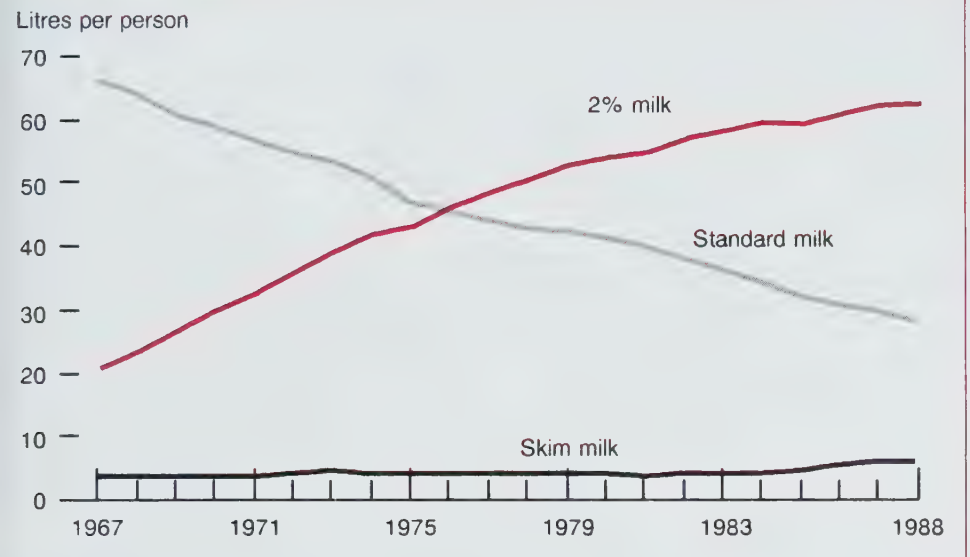
Fish

Although Canadians eat much less fish than meat, they are eating more fish now than they did during the late 1960s. In 1988, average fish and shellfish (fresh and frozen) consumption amounted to 4.9 kg per person, up from 2.5 kg in 1967.

Most of the increase, however, took place before the mid-1970s. In 1976, each Canadian ate an average of 4.7 kg of fish and shellfish. Since then, the annual amount has fluctuated between 4 kg and 5 kg per person.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

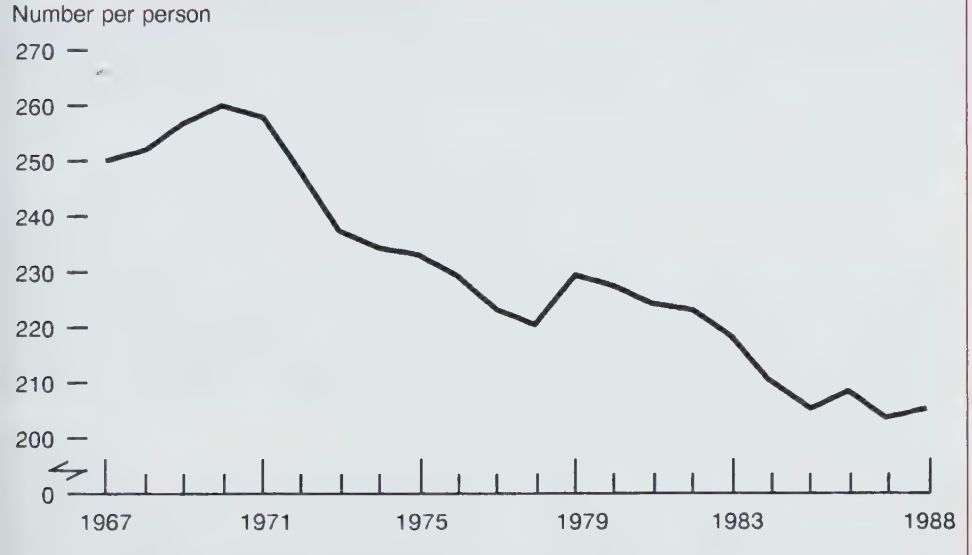
Average annual consumption of milk, 1967-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Electronic Data Dissemination Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average annual consumption of eggs, 1967-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Electronic Data Dissemination Division.

Milk and milk products

Canadians are switching to low-fat milk. In 1988, each person drank an average of 65 litres of 2% milk, triple the 21 litres consumed in 1967. Skim milk consumption has also risen from 3.3 litres per person in 1967 to 5.6 litres in 1988.

In contrast, average consumption of standard 3.25% milk dropped to 28 litres per person in 1988 from 66 litres in 1967.

Cheese, a major source of protein, has gained in popularity over the past two decades. In fact, cheese consumption more than doubled from 2.8 kg per person in 1967 to 6.2 kg in 1988.

Although still low, yogurt consumption has also grown substantially since the late 1960s. In 1988, Canadians ate an average of 0.4 kg of yogurt per person, up from just 0.02 kg in 1967.

Eggs

Each Canadian now consumes four dozen fewer eggs annually than in the late 1960s. Moreover, the decline has been relatively consistent throughout the two decades.

During 1988, each person ate an average of 205 eggs, down from 224 in 1977 and 250 in 1967.

More vegetables

Overall, Canadians eat more vegetables now than they did two decades ago. In 1988, each person consumed an average of 57 kg of fresh vegetables, up from 47 kg in 1976 and 34 kg in 1967. Specific vegetables, however, show different trends. Consumption of fresh cauliflower,

Measurement of consumption

To calculate quantities of food available for human use, imports and beginning stocks are added to production estimates. Data are derived mainly from farm surveys and reports by food industry firms engaged in production and marketing. The net food figure represents the supply of food at the wholesale level destined for retail distribution, where some portion is eventually wasted. Thus, consumption figures include a component that is discarded.

broccoli, and mushrooms, for example, rose quite sharply over the past two decades. In 1988, each Canadian ate an average of 3.0 kg of cauliflower, more than double the 1.3 kg in 1976; consumption in 1967 had been just 0.8 kg per person.

Broccoli's popularity also increased quite rapidly in recent years. In 1988, broccoli consumption was triple what it had been in 1976: 2.1 kg per person, compared with 0.7 kg. The 1967 figure was just 0.2 kg.

The quantity of mushrooms eaten also rose steadily over the past two decades to 1.6 kg per person in 1988. This was up from 0.6 kg in 1976 and just 0.2 kg in 1967.

Over the same period, carrot consumption increased, although much more slowly. In 1988, each person ate an average of 8.8 kg of carrots, a rise from 7.4 kg in 1976 and 6.6 kg in 1967.

Canadians have been inconsistent in the amount of potatoes they have eaten each year. In 1988, white potato consumption was 68 kg per person. Over the past two decades, the average annual amount of potatoes eaten fluctuated between 60 kg and 80 kg per person.

Fruit and juices

Fresh fruit consumption dropped sharply in 1988, after just over a decade of relative stability. In 1988, each Canadian ate an average of 54 kg of fresh fruit, down from 62 kg in 1987. This decline was likely precipitated, in part, by a sharp drop in fresh fruit imports, a downturn in production, and an increase in exports.

Between 1974 and 1987, annual consumption figures had generally fluctuated just above 60 kg per person. Before this period, however, the amount of fruit eaten had been increasing. In 1967, fresh fruit consumption averaged 54 kg per person.

After rising sharply between the late 1960s and mid-1980s, juice consumption dropped off in 1985 and has remained relatively stable since then. In 1988, each Canadian consumed the equivalent of 41 kg of fruit in juice. This figure was lower than the peak of 50 kg per person in 1985, but still more than double the 20 kg consumed in 1967.

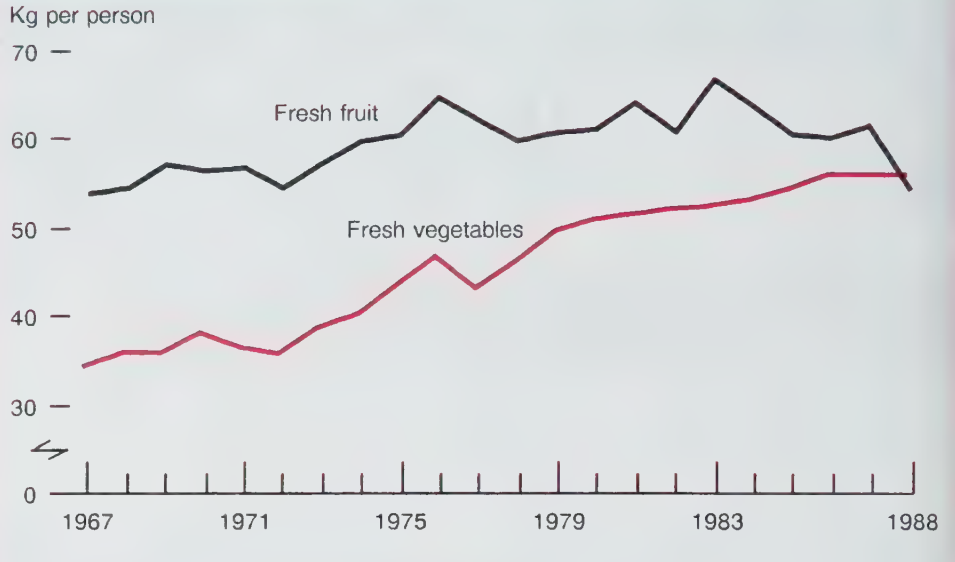
Fats and oils

Total consumption of fats and oils has increased slightly since the late 1960s. In 1988, each Canadian consumed an average of 20 kg of fats and oils, up from 18 kg in 1967.

Over the last twenty years, however, Canadians' taste for specific fats and oils has changed considerably. Butter consumption has been dropping since the late 1960s.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

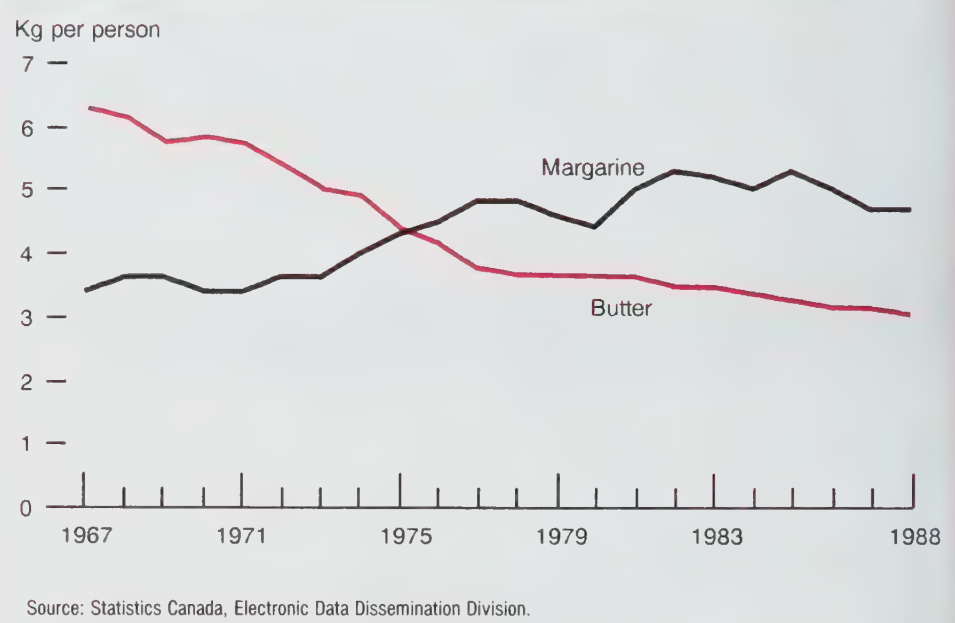
Average annual consumption of fresh fruit and vegetables, 1967-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Electronic Data Dissemination Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average annual consumption of butter and margarine, 1967-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Electronic Data Dissemination Division.

In 1988, each person ate an average of 3.1 kg of butter, down from 6.1 kg in 1967.

Margarine consumption rose between the late 1960s and the mid-1980s, but has declined slightly since then. In 1988, each Canadian ate an average of 4.7 kg of margarine, down from a peak of 5.3 kg in 1985. However, this was still considerably above the 1967 amount of 3.4 kg.

Consumption of shortening and oils, although higher in 1988 than in 1967, has been relatively stable throughout the 1980s (between 8 and 9 kg per person annually). For example, in 1988, consumption of these foods averaged 8.5 kg per person. This, however, was up from 6.3 kg in 1967.

Cereals

Canadians eat more cereal now than they did in the past. Between 1967 and 1988, overall annual consumption of breakfast cereals rose from 3.0 kg to 4.4 kg per person.



Since the early 1970s, oatmeal and rolled oats have been slowly gaining in popularity, after a fairly sharp drop during the preceding years. By 1988, each person was eating an average of 1.8 kg of these cereals, up from 1.2 kg in 1973. Before 1973, however, oatmeal and rolled oats consumption had fallen from an average of 2.1 kg per person in 1967.

Refined sugar

Canadians generally eat less refined sugar now than they did in the late 1960s and early 1970s. In 1988, each person ate an average of 40 kg of refined sugar, down from a peak of 47 kg in 1973. Since 1974, annual consumption has fluctuated between 38 kg and 44 kg. (These amounts do not include the sugar content of processed foods.)

Beverages

Coffee consumption has been relatively stable throughout the last two decades. In 1988, each Canadian went through an average of 4.3 kg of coffee beans. Since 1967, average annual consumption figures have been between 4.1 and 4.8 kg.

On the other hand, tea consumption has declined since the mid-1970s. The latest data indicate that Canadians used an average of 0.3 kg of tea in 1987. This was down from a peak of 1.3 kg in 1974. Before then, annual tea consumption had been relatively stable since the late 1960s, at around 1.1 kg per person.

Canadians now drink considerably more soft drinks than they did in the mid-1970s. By 1988, consumption averaged 90 litres per person, up from 62 litres in 1974.

Both authors are with the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Carleton University; **Tullio Caputo** *is an Associate Professor and* **Neil Poutanen** *is a research assistant.*

INTRODUCING



Statistics Canada's most frequently requested health information - now in one comprehensive quarterly journal

- ***Feature Articles***... on key topics like the results of recent research on cancer, cardio-vascular disease, etiology, and the socio-economic impact of health issues on Canadians

- ***Highlights***... capsule summaries of the latest health data released by Statistics Canada

- ***Selected Indicators***... to let you track and monitor important health trends on a national, regional or provincial level, including hospital indicators, mortality and morbidity statistics and national health levels

And, every issue of ***Health Reports*** includes a list of available information and sources to contact for specialized tabulations or custom data.

Be informed. Don't miss a single issue. Order your subscription today!

A subscription to ***Health Reports*** (Catalogue No. 82-003) is $104 annually in Canada, US$125 in the United States and US$146 in other countries.

To order, write to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre, listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to

1-613-951-1584

Or call toll free at

1-800-267-6677

and use your VISA or MasterCard.

THE GENERAL SOCIAL SURVEY

In order to increase Canadians' awareness of the statistics available to them, **Canadian Social Trends** *will, from time to time, provide descriptions of some of the major data sources at Statistics Canada. The following description highlights the General Social Survey, which is the source of four articles in this issue: "Perceptions of the Justice System," "Computer Literacy," "Sleep Patterns," and "Commuting Time." — Ed.*

Statistics Canada established the General Social Survey (GSS) in 1985 to broaden the range of social statistics available to Canadians. The survey was designed to fill some of the gaps in the social statistics program in areas such as health, education, justice, and culture. These gaps cannot be filled directly by existing survey or administrative data sources, either because of the level of detail required or because of the special characteristics of the population in question.

The GSS has two primary objectives: to monitor changes in the living conditions and well-being of Canadians, and to provide information on specific policy issues of current or emerging interest.

For instance, the GSS has provided data on informal support and friendship networks, which are of particular importance to Canada's growing number of elderly people. As well, GSS time use data show how much time different population groups devote to activities such as paid employment, entertainment, housework, shopping, and travel. The extent to which Canadians can and do use computers is another example of information gathered by the GSS, which is not available from other sources.

The GSS collects data annually from a sample of approximately 10,000 households. The target population includes all persons aged 15 and over, except full-time residents of institutions and residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories.

Each year, information is gathered on a range of basic socio-economic variables and population subgroups. Every survey also has what are referred to as core and focus components. Core content is chosen on a rotating basis from five general areas: health, time use, personal risk, work and education, and family. Focus content provides non-recurring information on a specific policy issue or social problem.

The first GSS concentrated on health and related lifestyles of the adult population. Core information included short- and long-term disability, health problems, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, sleep, and use of health care services. The focus questions examined social support available to the elderly.

The second GSS, conducted in the last quarter of 1986, collected information on time use, social mobility, and language. The time use questions identified how various population groups, such as students, the unemployed, working mothers, and the elderly, allocate their time. A secondary series of questions about the respondents' education and occupation, as well as those of their parents, dealt with social mobility. The focus component pertained to language knowledge and use.

Core content in the third GSS concerned accidents and criminal victimization. The purpose was to gather information on the prevalence of crime and accidents, including incidents not captured by existing hospital and police records. Focus questions looked at services to victims of crime. Interviews for this survey took place in January and February of 1988.

The fourth GSS, collected in January and February of 1989, targeted education and work. The core content contained three main themes: education and work in the service economy; new technologies and human resources; and emerging trends in education and work. The survey also included questions on attitudes toward science and technology.

The fifth GSS, which completed the first round of core topics, concentrated on the interactions and relationships with family and friends. The core drew heavily from Statistics Canada's 1984 Family History Survey questions on birth, marriage, and cohabitation, as well as the social support questions from the first GSS. Data collection for the fifth GSS was undertaken from January to March in 1990.

The sixth GSS, scheduled for 1991, will return to the core areas of health and lifestyle. This survey will provide both a snapshot of current conditions, as well as an indication of changes since 1985.

Results from the General Social Survey are available in a number of sources. So far, three major GSS publications have been released: *Health and Social Support, 1985* (Catalogue 11-612E, No. 1), *Patterns of Criminal Victimization in Canada* (Catalogue 11-612E, No. 2), and *Accidents in Canada* (Catalogue 11-612E, No. 3). Several other publications are being prepared on such topics as social mobility, time use, employment, and technology.

As well, several articles based on GSS data have been published. For example, in addition to the four articles in this issue of **Canadian Social Trends**, the following GSS stories have appeared in earlier issues:

"Lifestyle Risks: Smoking and Drinking in Canada" (Spring 1987)
"Help Around the House: Support for Older Canadians" (Autumn 1989)
"How Canadians Spend Their Day" (Winter 1989)
"Household Property Crime" (Spring 1990)
"Household Chores" (Spring 1990)
"Violent Victimization" (Summer 1990)
"Accidents" (Summer 1990)
"Time Use of the Elderly" (Summer 1990)

Data from the GSS are also available in public use microdata files. Anyone interested in receiving more information or in purchasing microdata tapes is asked to contact:

Dr. Douglas A. Norris, Assistant Director
Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division
Statistics Canada
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T6
(613) 951-2572

PERCEPTIONS OF THE JUSTICE SYSTEM

by Holly Johnson and Vincent Sacco



Canadians have mixed views about the criminal justice system. While most adults have a favourable opinion of their local police, their perceptions of the criminal courts are much less positive. In particular, the majority of Canadians feel that sentences for persons guilty of a crime are not severe enough.

Also, crime victims tend to have more negative feelings than non-victims about the justice system. In particular, victims of violent crime are less likely than others to view the police, and to some extent, the courts, in a positive light.

Positive about police, less so about courts

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, the majority of Canadians feel that the police are performing their duties well. In 1988, about two-thirds of adults felt the police were approachable (66%) and were doing a good job enforcing the law (60%).

At the same time, about half the population viewed the police as doing a good job both in supplying information about the prevention of crime (56%) and in responding to calls (50%).

Much smaller proportions of adult Canadians perceive the criminal courts as doing a good job. In 1988, only 14% of adults felt the courts provided justice quickly. As well, just 16% felt the courts did a good job helping victims of crime, while 25% were pleased with the job the courts were doing determining whether accused persons were guilty or innocent.

Canadians are most likely to see the courts as doing a good job protecting the rights of the accused. In 1988, 44% of adults considered that the courts did a good job in this area.

The majority of Canadians also believe that sentences handed down by the courts are too lenient. In 1988, two-thirds (65%) of adults felt that sentences for crimes were not severe enough. About one-quarter of the population felt that sentences were about right, while very few Canadians judged sentences to be too severe.

Victims less positive

Generally, victims of crime are less likely than people who have not been victimized to have a positive view of the overall criminal justice system. This is particularly true for police performance.

For example, in 1988, 53% of those who had been victims of a crime during the previous year, compared with 62% of non-victims, thought the police were doing a good job enforcing laws.

Also, fewer victims than non-victims thought the police responded well to calls. In 1988, 46% of crime victims, compared with 51% of non-victims, saw the police as doing a good job responding to calls.

Victims and non-victims had fairly similar opinions about the police with respect to the provision of information about crime prevention and approachability. In 1988, 54% of victims thought the police did a good job providing crime prevention information, compared with 57% of non-victims. Also, while 63% of victims thought the police were approachable, this was the case for 67% of non-victims.

Victims' perceptions of the police also depend on the type of victimization they experienced. For example, victims of violence are less likely than victims of other crimes to have positive opinions of the police.[1]

In 1988, 44% of victims of violent crime had a favourable view of how the police enforced the law, while 56% of victims of non-violent incidents felt this way.

Similarly, 46% of violently victimized people, compared with 56% of other victims, rated the police as doing a good job providing crime prevention information.

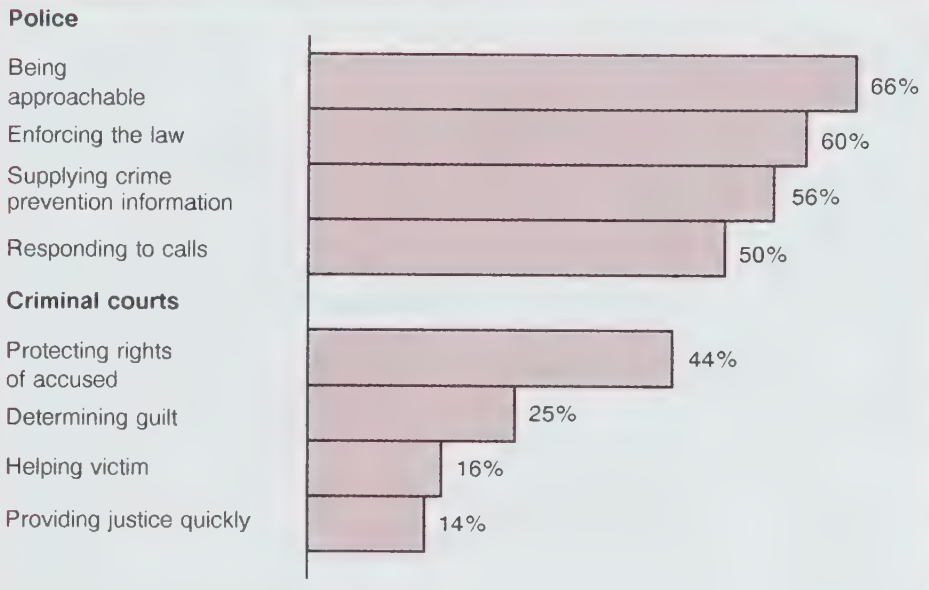
In addition, those who had been violently victimized had a less positive opinion of police response to calls. Forty percent of victims of violent crime felt the police did a good job in this area, compared with 48% of victims of non-violent crime.

Victims of violent crime are less likely to view the police as approachable. In 1988, 57% of people who had been victims of violent crime rated the police

[1] Violent crimes include sexual and non-sexual assault and robbery. Non-violent crimes include break and enter, theft of motor vehicles and motor vehicle parts, theft of personal or household property, and vandalism. Both categories include attempted as well as completed crimes.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

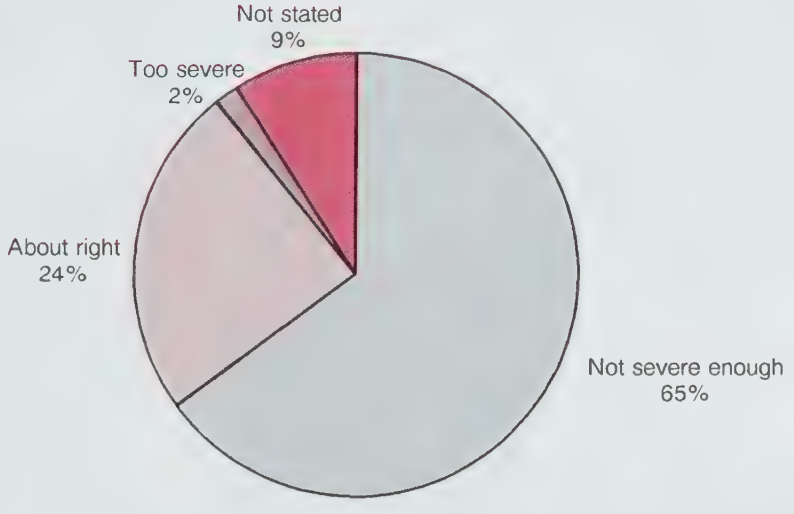
Percentage of adults who perceive the justice system as doing a good job, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 2.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Perception of criminal court sentences, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 2.

as doing a good job in this area, compared with 65% of other victims.

Victims of crime are also less likely than non-victims to perceive the criminal courts as doing a good job providing justice and helping victims. In 1988, 11% of crime victims stated the courts did a good job providing justice, while the figure for non-victims was 15%. In terms of helping victims, 13% of crime victims said the courts were doing a good job, compared with 17% of non-victims.

On the other hand, victims had a slightly more positive view than non-victims of how the courts protect the rights of the accused (47% and 44%). Perceptions of the ability of the courts to determine guilt were almost the same for both groups. Only about one-quarter of each group felt the courts were doing a good job determining the guilt of accused persons.

Regional differences

Perceptions of the justice system vary somewhat in different regions. For example, in 1988, while almost three-quarters of people in Atlantic Canada (73%) and British Columbia (71%) felt local police were approachable, this proportion dropped below 70% in both Ontario (67%) and the Prairies (66%), and to just 60% in Quebec.

At the same time, the proportion of the population who had a favourable opinion of how police enforce the law ranged from close to 65% in Quebec and the Atlantic region to just over 55% in the Prairies.

People living in the Prairies were also most negative about police response to calls. In 1988, 43% of the population felt the police did a good job in this area, whereas the proportion was about 50% in all other regions.

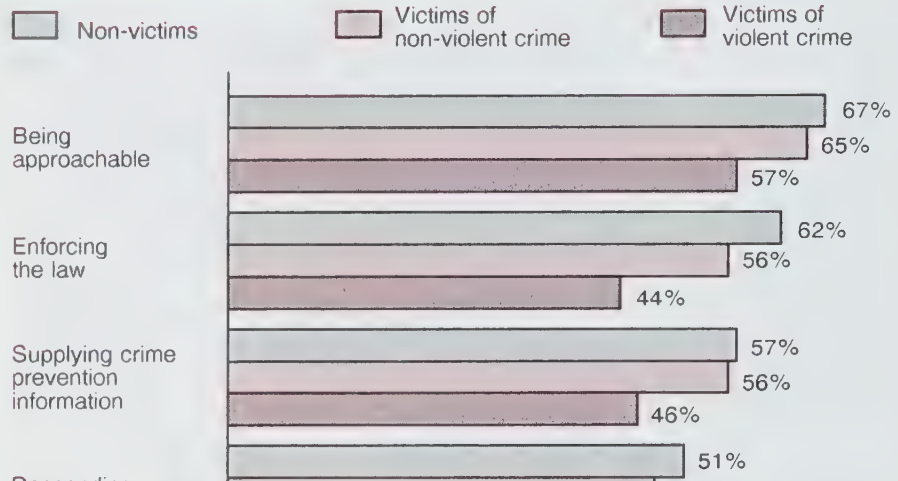
On the other hand, people in the Prairies gave local police the highest rating in terms of supplying crime prevention information. In 1988, 62% of Prairie residents felt police were doing a good job in this regard, compared with 60% in British Columbia and around 55% in the other regions.

There were also regional differences in how people perceived the criminal court system. For example, about one in five people in the Atlantic region and Quebec felt the courts were providing justice quickly. Proportions dropped to about one in ten in other regions.

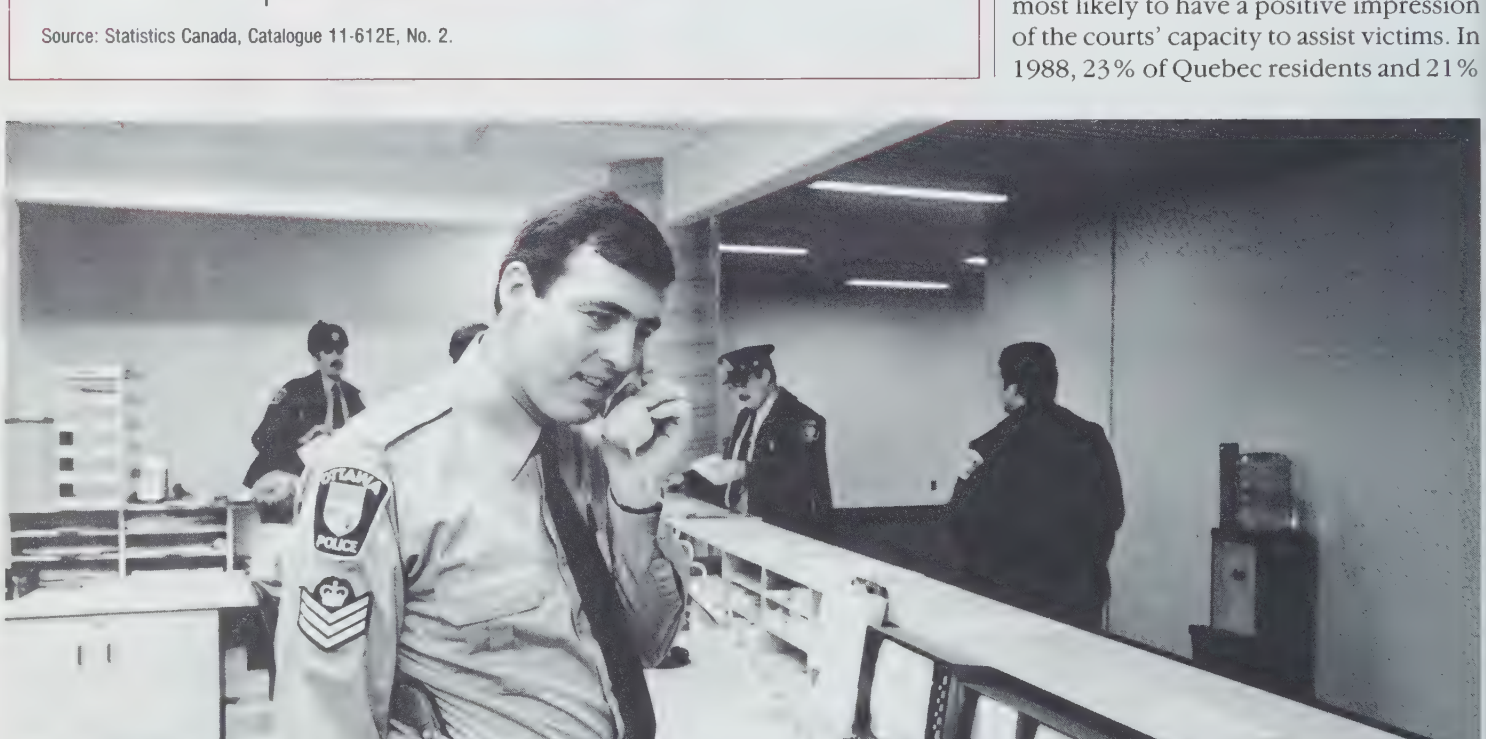
Quebec and Atlantic residents were also most likely to have a positive impression of the courts' capacity to assist victims. In 1988, 23% of Quebec residents and 21%

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of adults who perceive the justice system as doing a good job, by victim status, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612E, No. 2.



Percentage of adults with favourable perceptions of the justice system, by region, 1988

	Atlantic	Quebec	Ontario	Prairies	British Columbia
			%		
Police					
Being approachable	73	60	67	66	71
Enforcing the law	63	64	59	56	59
Supplying crime prevention information	55	55	53	62	60
Responding to calls	51	51	51	43	52
Criminal courts					
Providing justice quickly	22	20	10	12	9
Helping victim	21	23	13	15	10
Determining guilt	29	27	23	27	25
Protecting rights of accused	44	42	45	42	50

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1988.



of those in the Atlantic region felt the courts were doing a good job helping victims. Proportions in other regions were no higher than 15%.

People in British Columbia were the most positive about the ability of the criminal courts to protect the rights of the accused. In 1988, 50% felt the courts were doing a good job in this area. Residents of Quebec and the Prairies were least positive in their assessment of the courts on this measure (42%).

Atlantic residents were most likely to give the criminal courts a positive rating on determining guilt (29%), while Ontario residents were least likely to do so (23%).

Services for victims

While various programs have been established to help victims of crime, some programs are more widely known than others.

Canadians are most familiar with services for victims such as shelters for battered women, community police programs, and court assistance programs. Fully 90% of the adult population knew of such services in 1988.

The majority of Canadians are also aware of the availability of insurance to pay for losses or injury caused by crime. In 1988, about three-quarters (73%) of the population were familiar with this form of compensation.

Most Canadians were aware of civil awards for damages (59%); fewer were familiar with Criminal Injuries Compensation (44%).

One in four (39%) was aware of restitution payments ordered by a judge as part of an offender's sentence.

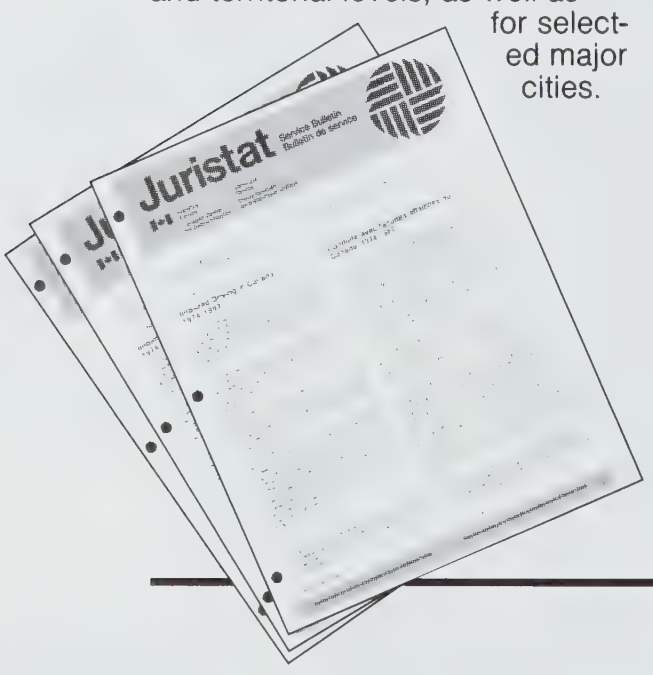
On the other hand, in 1988, fewer than one-third (31%) of the population knew of victim-offender reconciliation programs designed to resolve disputes.

Holly Johnson *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada;* **Vincent Sacco** *is Head of the Department of Sociology at Queen's University.*

How do we spend over $7 billion a year to administer our Justice System?

How many Canadians are charged with impaired driving every year? What is the per capita cost of legal aid? How many police officers protect 26 million Canadians? These are the types of questions answered by **Juristat**.

Each issue gives you an analysis and detailed statistics on a different aspect of the justice system. **Juristat** provides you with data on law enforcement, legal aid, corrections, and adult and juvenile courts on national, provincial and territorial levels, as well as for selected major cities.



Thousands of individual justice-related agencies and departments provide the information.

A year's subscription gives you twelve issues of comprehensive, current and extensive justice-related information. Published by Statistics Canada, **Juristat** is a unique periodical, of great interest to anyone looking for information on Canada's justice system.

Get the facts.

A subscription to **Juristat** (Catalogue No. 85-002) is $78 in Canada, US$94 in the United States and US$109 in other countries.

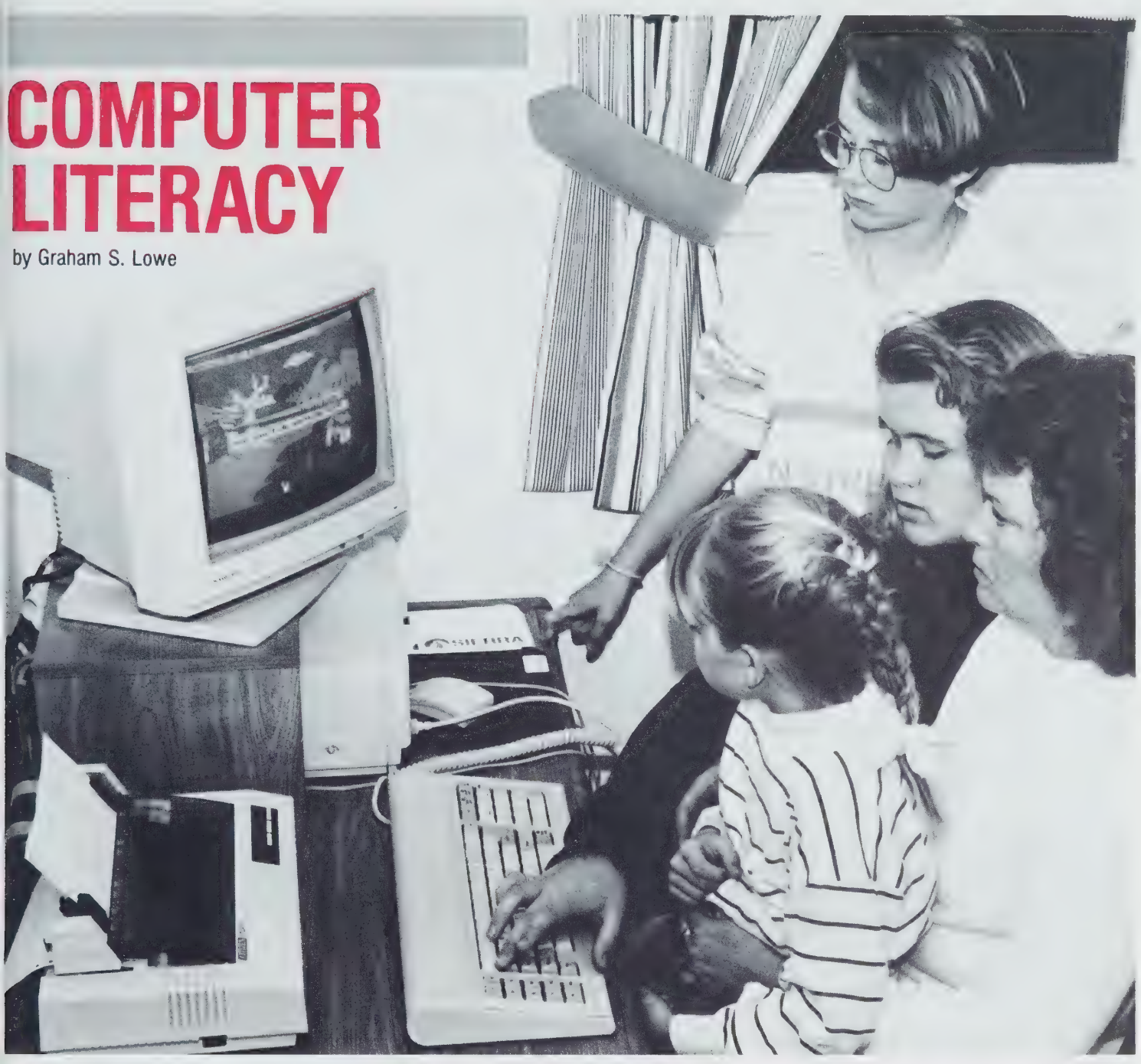
To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

COMPUTER LITERACY

by Graham S. Lowe



Computers are now part of daily life for a growing number of Canadians. The 1980s witnessed technological innovations as business, industry, government, and educational institutions became increasingly computer-dependent. In the 1990s, the ability to use a computer will be more and more necessary in order to cope with the demands of many occupations or with school work.

Computer know-how

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, in 1989, 9.6 million Canadians, just under half (47%) the adult population, reported being able to use a computer.

Computer literacy is, by far, most prevalent among teenagers. In 1989, 82% of

Computer use, training, and ownership, by age, 1989

Age group	Able to use	Formal training	Computer in home
		%	
15-19	82	63	35
20-24	66	53	16
25-34	60	38	17
35-44	56	35	30
45-54	38	23	25
55-64	22	12	10
65 and over	6	5	3
Total	**47**	**32**	**19**

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

15-19-year-olds knew how to use a computer. For people aged 20-24, the figure was 66%, and at ages 25-34, 60%. Even at ages 35-44, 56% of people were computer literate. After age 45, however, proportions dropped sharply with 38% of 45-54-year-olds and 22% of 55-64-year-olds knowing how to use a computer. Just 6% of people aged 65 and over were computer literate.

Regional differences

The proportion of people with computer skills varies somewhat in different regions. In 1989, around half the adult population in Alberta (55%), Ontario (52%), and British Columbia (50%) could use a computer. This compared with 46% of adults in Manitoba and Saskatchewan and 40% in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces.

Many uses

Computers have a variety of uses. In the 12 months preceding the survey, playing games was the most commonly reported use (73% of users), although only 16% of people with computer skills used the technology solely for games. Not unexpectedly, game playing was most prevalent among teenage computer users (92%) and declined steadily in successive age groups to fewer than half of 55-64-year-olds (47%).

Word processing and data entry were each reported by 63% of users. It is somewhat surprising that word processing was also most prevalent among younger age groups. However, this high level of word processing activity among teenagers (72%) may be related to their use of this technology for school assignments. Data entry, on the other hand, was performed most often by people in the 25-54 age range (65%).

Two other work-related computer uses, record-keeping and data analysis, are less common. Just under half (48%) of users reported that they had done record-keeping, while about a third (32%) had performed data analysis. As well, these activities tended to be most prevalent among computer users in the prime working ages.

A comparatively small number of computer users are involved in programming. About a quarter (26%) of users indicated that they had programmed computers. The group most likely to have done so were teenagers (49%). This may reflect the large number of students who do programming as part of their course work.

Computer literacy in the workforce

People in the labour force are more likely than others to be computer literate. In 1989, close to six in ten employed adults (57%) could use computers, and more than half (52%) of those who were unemployed were able to do so. By contrast, just 18% of people keeping house and 8% of those who were retired were computer literate.

Computer knowledge, however, varies widely among people in different occupations. The occupational group with the highest rate of computer literacy in 1989 was physical/natural sciences and engineering: fully 88% of the people in this field knew how to use a computer.

At the same time, 76% of people in clerical occupations were able to use a computer, as were 70% of those in teaching. As well, 69% of people with jobs in management/administration were computer literate, while the figure was 63% in sales.

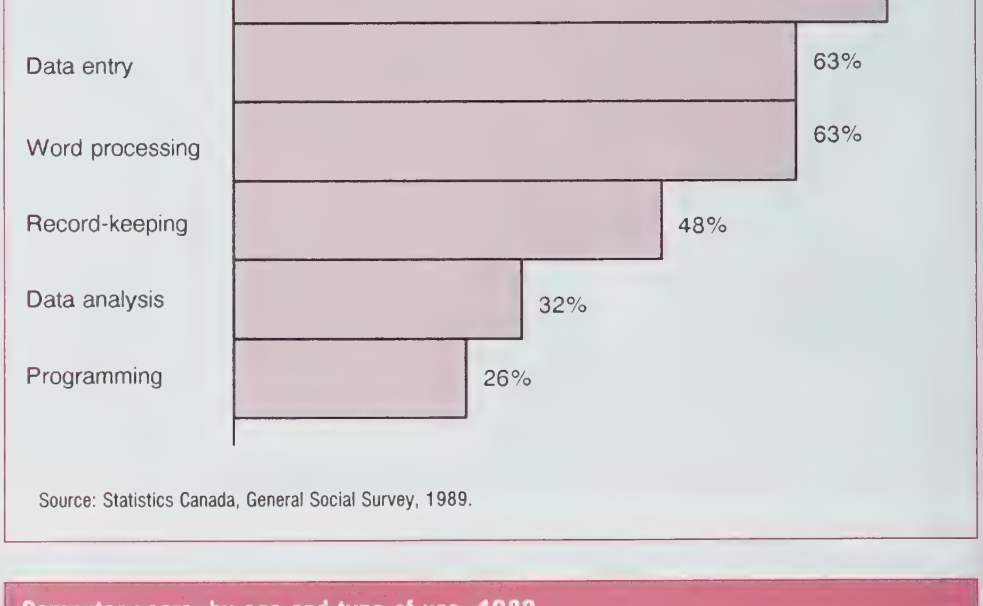
On the other hand, in a number of occupations that accounted for a large proportion of workers, the level of computer literacy was relatively low: primary (25%), processing (28%), nursing (33%), machining (35%), construction (38%), product fabricating, assembling and repairing (39%), transportation (40%), and services (44%).

Computer courses

The majority of computer users have gained some skills through formal training. In 1989, almost 6.4 million people, representing two-thirds of those who could operate a computer, reported that they

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Computer usage by the population aged 15 and over who can use computers, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

Computer users, by age and type of use, 1989

Age group	Game playing	Word processing	Data entry	Record-keeping	Data analysis	Programming
			%			
15-19	92	72	61	38	24	49
20-24	79	65	60	46	28	26
25-34	72	60	65	50	35	23
35-44	71	63	66	52	39	21
45-54	59	60	65	51	31	15
55-64	47	52	61	51	35	14
65 and over	72	40	41	32	18	14

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

had taken a computer course. As a proportion of the population aged 15 and over, those who had computer training represented 32%.

Participation in computer courses, however, varies at different ages and is highest among teenagers. Close to two-thirds (63%) of 15-19-year-olds had taken a computer course, as had 53% of people aged 20-24. For many of these young people, computer training may have been part of their regular school work.

Among older people, participation in computer training is less prevalent. Over a third (37%) of those aged 25-44 had taken a computer course. The figure was 23% at ages 45-54 and 12% at ages 55-64. Seniors aged 65 and over were the group least likely to have enrolled, with just 5% reporting that they had taken a course.

Not surprisingly, computer training is related to overall educational attainment. More than half (57%) of people with university degrees had taken a computer course, compared with 35% of individuals with a high school diploma and 17% of those with less than high school.

Computers in the home

The shrinking size, user friendliness, and relative affordability of the new generation of personal computers have transformed them into a household technology. In 1989, 3.9 million Canadians, 19% of all adults, reported that they had a computer in their home.

Ontario and British Columbia residents were more likely than other Canadians to have home computers. In 1989, 23% of people in Ontario and 22% of those in British Columbia reported that they had a computer in their home. The ownership rate was also just above the national average in Alberta (20%). By contrast, rates of ownership were relatively low in Quebec (17%), the Atlantic provinces (16%), and Manitoba and Saskatchewan (15%).

Computer ownership rates tend to be highest among well-educated people. Whereas 35% of university degree-holders had home computers in 1989, the proportion was 20% among people with a post-secondary diploma and 19% among those with a high school diploma. For people with less than high school graduation, the figure was 14%.

Owning a computer is also associated with a relatively high income. While 36% of people in households with incomes of $60,000 or more reported having home computers, the proportion was 10% among those in households with incomes below $30,000.

Use of home computers

Although a substantial number of Canadians have a computer in their home, they do not necessarily use it, as the equipment may be operated by other household members. In 1989, 66% of people with computers in their homes reported having used them in the previous 12 months.

The most common application reported by home computer users was game playing. However, although 83% of users had played computer games, just 6% of users indicated that this was the only way in which they had used their equipment.

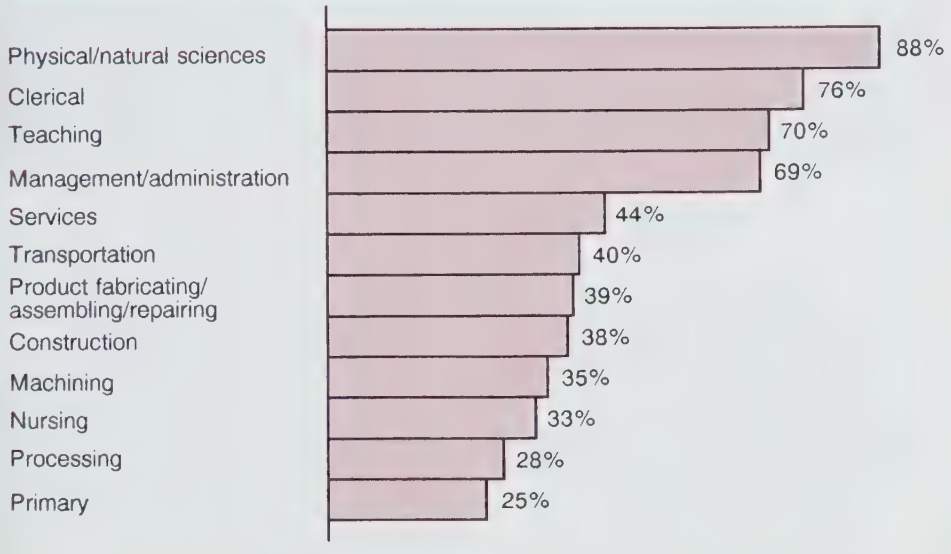
In fact, almost as many people (82%) used their computer for word processing as for playing games. Close to three-quarters (72%) of users had entered data, and 60% reported that they had done record-keeping. On the other hand, fewer than half had analysed data (43%) or programmed their computers (40%).

Graham S. Lowe *is a Professor of Sociology at the University of Alberta.*



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ability to use computers, by selected occupations, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

SLEEP PATTERNS

by Tamara Knighton

Sleep is a physiological necessity that consumes about one-third of a typical day. Although most Canadians get more than 6.5 hours of sleep a night, about one-quarter of adults sleep less than this.

When lack of sleep becomes chronic and extensive, it can have serious consequences such as impaired judgment and delayed reaction time, which, in turn, may result in automobile and industrial accidents. Also, the health and productivity of people who are not getting adequate sleep may be affected.

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, conducted in November and December of 1986, sleeping less than 6.5 hours a night tends to be relatively common among some groups. People in their middle years and those who are employed, particularly full-time workers, are most likely to get less than 6.5 hours of sleep.



Eight hours

Most people appear to get enough sleep. In 1986, Canadians aged 15 and over averaged 8.2 hours of sleep a night. As well, almost three-quarters got at least 6.5 hours of sleep: 57% slept between 6.5 and 8.5 hours, while 15% slept more than 8.5 hours. Nonetheless, about one in four (28%) adults slept less than 6.5 hours a night.

Women sleep longer

Generally, women get slightly more sleep than men. In 1986, women averaged 8.3 hours a night, compared with 8.1 hours for men. And overall, a higher percentage of men (31%) than women (25%) slept less than 6.5 hours.

Even when factors such as work and the presence of children are considered, women still sleep longer.

For instance, employed women with at least one child under age 5 at home averaged 8.0 hours of sleep a night in 1986, compared with 7.7 hours for their male counterparts. As well, while 30% of these women slept less than 6.5 hours, the figure for men was 43%.

People in households without young children get more sleep, but again, the difference between women and men persists. Employed women with no children under age 19 at home slept an average of 8.1 hours a night in 1986, whereas men in these circumstances averaged 7.9 hours.

People in middle years sleep less

Sleep duration varies markedly at different ages. People aged 25-64 tend to sleep somewhat less than do those at younger and older ages. In 1986, nightly sleep averaged 7.9 hours for 35-54-year-olds, 8.0 hours for those aged 25-34, and 8.2 hours for people aged 55-64.

On the other hand, the 15-24 age group averaged 8.6 hours a night in 1986. The elderly slept the most of any group, averaging 8.7 hours.

As well, getting relatively little sleep at night is most common among people in their middle years. More than a third (35%) of 35-54-year-olds slept less than 6.5 hours a night in 1986, while this was

the case for 31% of people aged 25-34. About one-quarter of those aged 15-24 (24%) and 55-64 (25%) slept less than 6.5 hours. However, the comparable figure for the elderly was only 16%.

These patterns were the same for men and women, although at all ages, men tended to sleep less.

Less sleep for workers

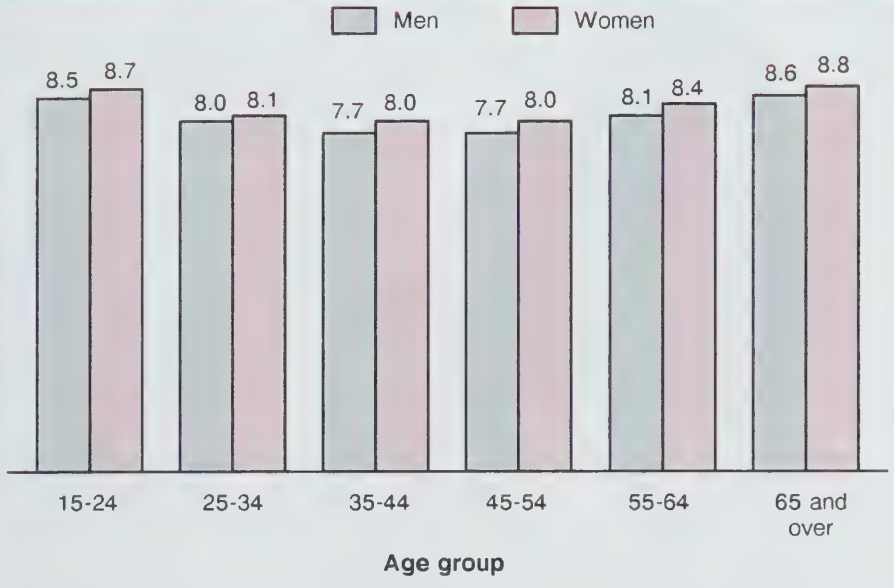
People working for pay sleep less than those who do not. In 1986, full-time workers averaged 7.9 hours of sleep a night. Part-time workers slept longer, with an average of 8.3 hours.

Among people who were not working for pay, job-seekers slept the most, averaging 8.9 hours. Retirees slept almost as long (8.7 hours), while averages were lower for students (8.5 hours) and people keeping house (8.4 hours).

People with full-time jobs are most likely to get relatively little sleep. More than a third (35%) of this group averaged less than 6.5 hours of sleep a night in 1986. The corresponding figure for part-time workers was 25%, and for students, 24%. Job-seekers (21%) and people keeping house (22%) were not as likely to be sleep-deprived. Comparatively few retirees (14%) got less than 6.5 hours of sleep.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

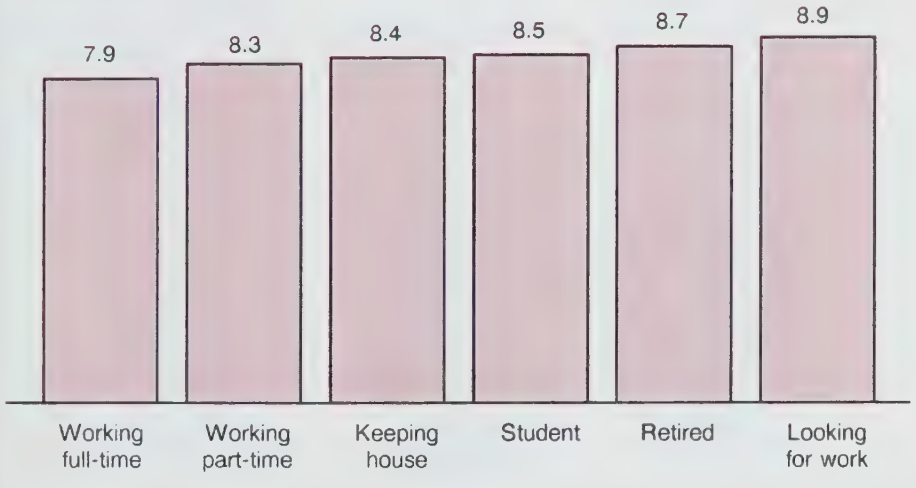
Average hours of sleep, by age and sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average hours of sleep, by major activity, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

Catching up

Sleep duration varies substantially on different days. Not surprisingly, people sleep longer on weekends.

In 1986, average weekend sleep duration was 8.9 hours a night, compared with 8.0 hours on weekdays. Also, more than twice as many people slept more than 8.5 hours a night on weekends (27%) than on weekdays (11%).

Napping

As well, a considerable number of Canadians take naps. In 1986, on a given day, about 10% of Canadians napped for an average of almost 2 hours.

Men and women are equally likely to nap. However, women's naps tend to be just slightly longer (an average of 2.0 hours) than those of men (1.9 hours).

Napping is most common at older ages. In 1986, while 24% of people aged 65 and over napped, proportions for younger age groups ranged from 7% for 15-24-year-olds to 11% for those aged 55-64.

But although older people are most likely to nap, their naps are shorter than those of younger age groups. Nappers aged 55 and over averaged 1.8 hours a day, compared with 2.0 hours for younger people who napped.

People working for pay or looking for work and students are less likely to nap than are those who are keeping house or retired. On a given day in 1986, 7% of workers, 8% of students, and 9% of job-seekers napped. This compared with 12% of people keeping house and 23% of retirees. However, naps taken by workers, job-seekers, and students were longer (an average of 2.0 hours) than those taken by people keeping house (1.8 hours) and retirees (1.9 hours).

Tamara Knighton *is a research assistant with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

by Katherine Nessner



Overcoming barriers to allow Canadians with disabilities to fully participate in social and economic life has been a major policy concern in Canada over the past decade. While the likelihood of having a disability is greatest among elderly people, many children under the age of 15 also have some degree of disability.

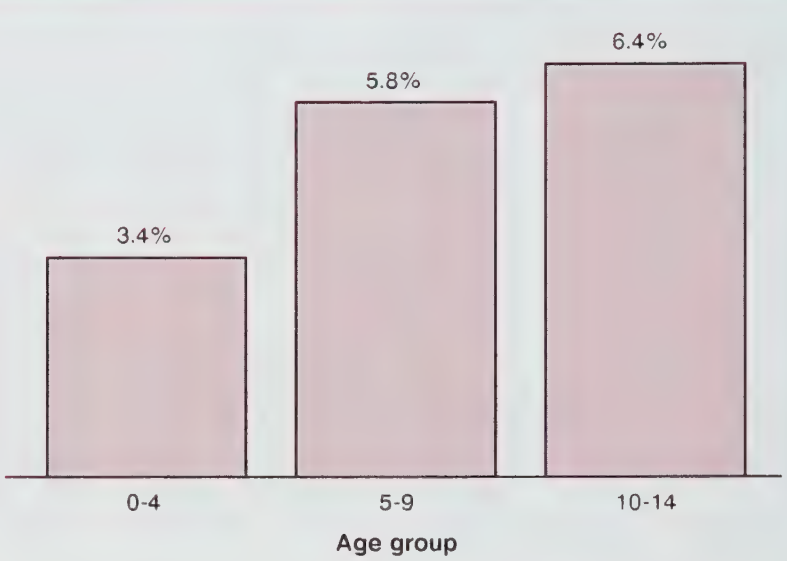
In 1986, there were an estimated 277,000 Canadian children with disabilities. Fully 99% of these children lived in households, while the remaining 1% lived in health-related institutions.

Children with disabilities represent 5% of all young people. Boys, however, are slightly more likely than girls to have a disability. In 1986, 6% of boys were disabled, compared with 5% of girls.

As well, disabilities are more prevalent among older children than among younger ones. In 1986, about 6% of children aged 5-14 were disabled, while the proportion was 3% for those younger than age 5.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of children with disabilities, by age, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

Nonetheless, the level of disability among children tends to be relatively low, compared with older age groups. For example, in 1986, 9% of people aged 35-44 had a disability. This proportion climbed for each successive age group to 46% at age 65 and over.

Most in school

In 1986, slightly more than half of all non-institutionalized children with disabilities had a long-term condition or health problem that limited or prevented participation in many activities.

Nonetheless, most children with disabilities were in school. In fact, 51% of children aged 5-14 with disabilities were attending regular schools in April 1986. Another 30% were in regular schools with special classes, while 6% were attending special schools.

In April 1986, 6% of children with disabilities aged 5-14 residing in households were not in school, but half of them had attended school at one time. About 3% of children with disabilities had never gone to school.

The education of some children with disabilities has been disrupted. For example, 6% of school-age children with disabilities had begun school later than most children, and 17% had their schooling interrupted for long periods. In total, almost one-third (32%) of school-age children with disabilities had taken longer than other children to achieve their current level of education.

As well, some children with disabilities have difficulty participating in certain physical activities. For example, in 1986, 30% of children aged 10-14 with disabilities were prevented by their condition or health problem from leisure time participation in physical activities.

Nature of disability

Almost three-quarters of children with disabilities residing in households in 1986 had a mild disability. Another 18% had a moderate disability, while 9% had a severe disability.

Those with a learning disability make up the largest single group of children with disabilities. In 1986, 26% of all disabled children had a learning disability. As well, 17% had a hearing problem, and 10% had a vision problem that could not be corrected by glasses or contact lenses. In addition, 9% were reported to have a mental handicap, such as developmental delay or mental retardation.

Other disabling long-term conditions and health problems are less prevalent among children. In 1986, 9% of children with disabilities had a heart condition or disease. Smaller proportions were affected by epilepsy (5%), cerebral palsy (4%), a kidney condition or disease (3%), or a lung condition or disease, excluding allergies, asthma, and bronchitis (3%).[1]

As well, children may have disabilities that cannot be diagnosed before age 5. Speech problems affected 17% of children aged 5-14 with disabilities, while 13% were reported to have psychiatric problems.

Medication and assistive devices

Many children with disabilities require medication on a regular basis. In 1986, 31% of children aged 5-14 with disabilities were taking medication at least once a week for their condition or health problem.

Assistive devices are also used by many children with disabilities. In 1986, 26% of non-institutionalized children with disabilities used some form of assistive device, the majority of which facilitated mobility and/or agility. That year, 8% of children with disabilities used medically prescribed footwear; 5% had braces other than those used for teeth; 3% used a wheelchair; and 2% used crutches or other types of walking aids. Fewer than 1% had an artificial leg, arm, hand, or foot. In addition, 4% used a hearing aid, and 1% had a vision aid other than glasses or contact lenses.[2]

Transportation barriers

Some children with disabilities are restricted from full participation in everyday activities because of transportation difficulties. In 1986, 5% of disabled children aged 5-14 needed special bus or van service for local travel, but over half of them did not have access to such service. At the same time, local public transportation was available to 54% of disabled children aged 5-14 in 1986. However, one in ten of these children had trouble using such facilities.

Other children are prevented from leaving their residence for short trips because of their condition or health problem. In 1986, 4% of all children aged 5-14 with disabilities were housebound.

In 1986, 2% of children aged 5-14 with disabilities were prevented from taking long-distance trips because transportation services were not suitable for their conditions. Another 6% were able to travel, but had trouble using a bus, train, or airplane.

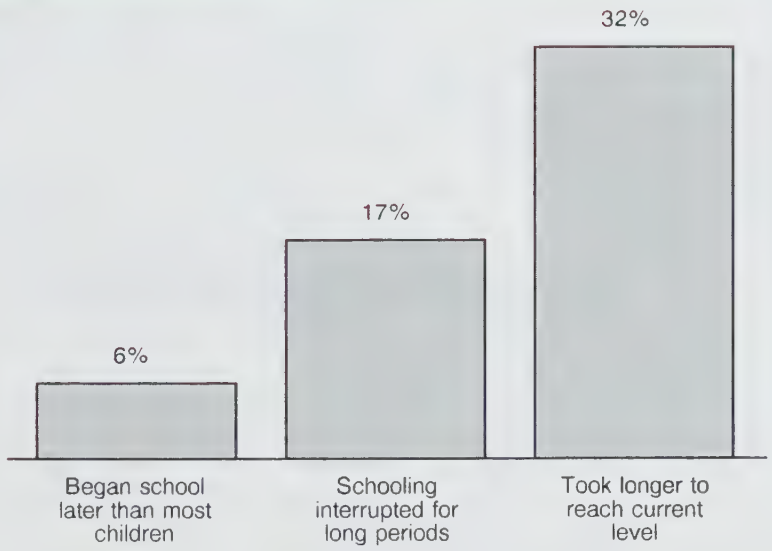
Barriers at home

Some children with disabilities also encounter barriers in their own homes. For example, in 1986, 4% of disabled children aged 5-14 required special features to enter or leave their residence. Half of this group, however, did not have such features. As well, 3% of children with disabilities in this age group required other special features inside their homes. However, these were lacking for more than one-third of this group.

Difficult access to bathroom facilities is also a common problem faced by children with disabilities. In 1986, 5% of children

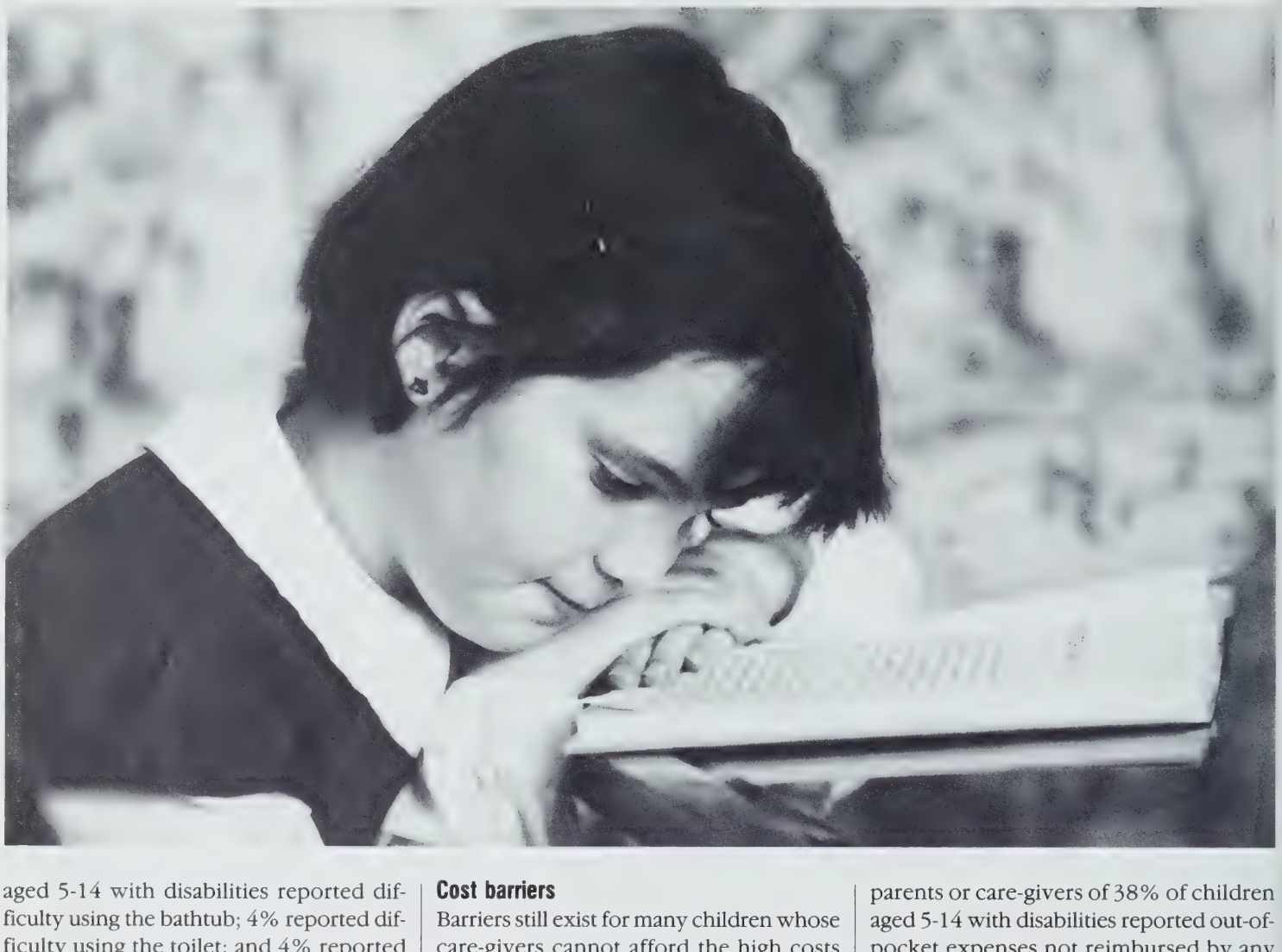
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of children with disabilities whose education was affected, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

[1] A child may have more than one disability.
[2] A child may use more than one type of assistive device.



aged 5-14 with disabilities reported difficulty using the bathtub; 4% reported difficulty using the toilet; and 4% reported difficulty using the basin. Again, modifications to these facilities had been made for only around one-third of these children.

Cost barriers

Barriers still exist for many children whose care-givers cannot afford the high costs of specialized services required for children with disabilities. Personal finances must often cover these costs. In 1986, the parents or care-givers of 38% of children aged 5-14 with disabilities reported out-of-pocket expenses not reimbursed by any insurance or government program.

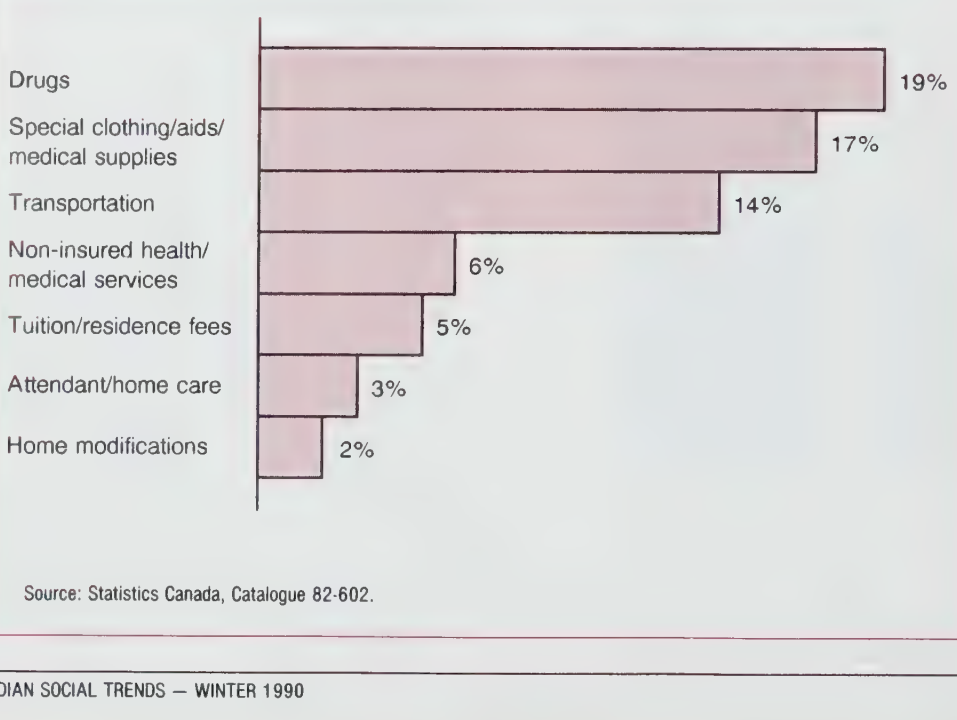
The most commonly reported expenses were for prescription and non-prescription drugs (19%), special clothing aids and medical supplies (17%), and transportation (14%). Other expenses included non-insured health and medical services (6%), tuition or residence fees (5%), personal services and attendant homecare (3%), and home modifications (2%).

Katherine Nessner *is a Contributing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

- More information on people with disabilities is available in *Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of care-givers of children aged 5-14 with disabilities incurring non-reimbursed expenses, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602.

THE NEWS BEHIND THE NUMBERS

The 1986 Census Data Base collected the numbers on Canadians – but what do they mean to you? The *FOCUS ON CANADA* Series analyses the issues that emerged from the Census results, in an easy-to-read style.

FOCUS ON CANADA looks at the issues affecting Canada's seniors and its youth, its ethnic and aboriginal communities; its regions in the far north and the industrial south.

And there's much more to keep you informed – and enlightened. Each publication is bilingual, and costs $10 in Canada (US$11 in other countries). Order the full set of 16 for a comprehensive reference tool for home, school or office.



To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6.
For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free.

Please make cheques or money orders payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications.

Contact a Regional Reference Centre near you for further information.

1-800-267-6677 Call Toll-Free

READING SKILLS

by Gilles Montigny



In recent years, technological progress and organizational changes have increased the basic qualifications for many entry-level jobs. As a result, there are growing concerns that people without adequate reading skills will not be able to compete in an increasingly complex job market.

The results of the Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities indicate that the majority of Canadian adults have reading abilities which allow them to deal with most everyday reading requirements. In 1989, 63% of people aged 16-69 were judged to have adequate reading skills.

Nonetheless, a substantial minority of adults have limited reading abilities. In 1989, nearly 2.7 million adult Canadians, 15% of the population aged 16-69 with reported abilities in either English or French, had limited reading skills such that they could not deal with the majority of written material they encountered.[1]

[1] The data in this article excluded people with language problems. As a result, some of the numbers reported here may differ from previously published results from this survey, which grouped people without skills in either official language among those at the lowest reading level.

The population with limited reading skills included people with very limited reading ability (10%), as well as those who are likely to identify themselves as people who cannot read (5%).

A further 4 million Canadian adults, 22% of the population aged 16-69, could use reading material to carry out simple reading tasks within familiar contexts with materials that were clearly laid out. This group, however, did not have sufficient skills to cope with more complex reading contexts.

More limited skills among older Canadians

Older Canadians are much more likely than younger people to have problems reading. In 1989, 36% of people aged 55-69 had limited reading skills, whereas the figure was only 14% among those aged 35-54, and just 7% for those under age 35.

At the same time, a relatively small percentage of older Canadians had adequate reading skills. In 1989, only 36% of people aged 55-69 could meet most everyday reading demands. In contrast, 63% of people aged 35-54, 76% of those aged 25-34, and 71% of those aged 16-24 had adequate skills.

Somewhat surprisingly, though, a relatively large proportion of young adults could read simple, clearly laid-out material, but had difficulty with complex reading material. In 1989, almost a quarter (23%) of people aged 16-24 could read, but only simple text. In comparison, 17% of those aged 25-34 were in this category.

The relatively high proportion of the youngest adults experiencing reading problems may be attributable, in part, to their somewhat limited exposure to a variety of written material; many of them, for example, are still in school.

Reading skills and education

Not surprisingly, people with higher levels of education are most likely to have adequate reading abilities. In 1989, 89% of those who had attended university and 81% who had gone to community college could handle most everyday reading requirements.

This compares with 70% of high school graduates, and just 48% of people who had not completed high school. A very low proportion, only 12%[2], of those who had elementary schooling or no schooling whatever, could read well enough to deal with most everyday situations.

Still, even some people with higher levels of education had less than adequate reading skills. For example, in 1989, 8% of people who had attended university, 15% of those who had been to community college, and 22% of high school graduates could handle simple reading material, but did not have the skills to cope with more complex contexts. As well, a small number of people at each of these education levels had limited reading skills; however, the sampling variability associated with these estimates was too high to allow for these figures to be released.

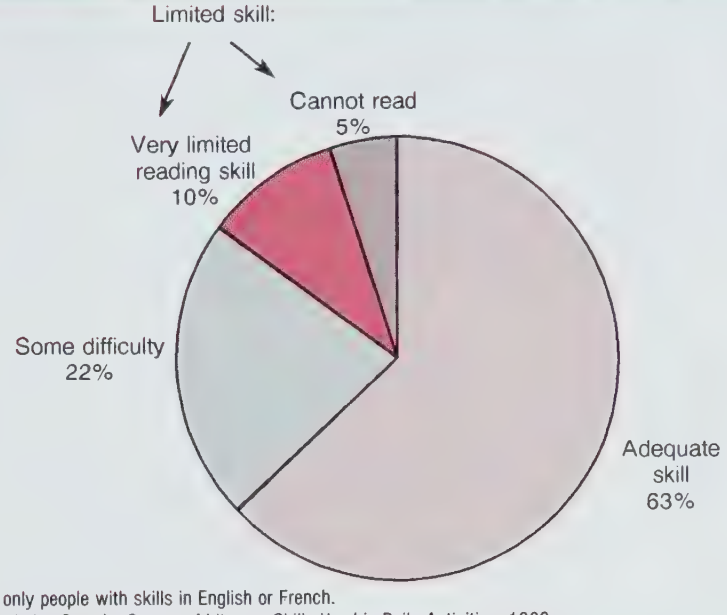
More reading problems among immigrants

Immigrants generally have fewer reading skills than people born in Canada. In 1989, 28% of immigrants who had some skills in either English or French had limited reading abilities, compared with just 12% of people born in Canada. Many of these immigrants, however, may have been able to read languages other than English or French.

As well, recent immigrants have somewhat lower levels of reading proficiency

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

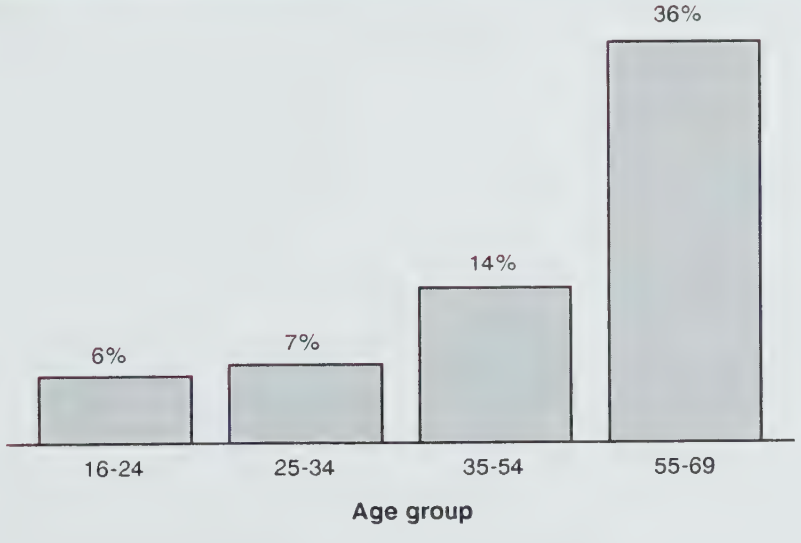
Reading skills of people aged 16-69[1], 1989



[1] Includes only people with skills in English or French.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities, 1989.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of people aged 16-69[1] with limited reading skills, by age, 1989



[1] Includes only people with skills in English or French.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities, 1989.

[2] The sampling variability of this estimate is high.

than those who have been in Canada longer. Of immigrants living in Canada in 1989, 40% of those who had arrived since 1980 had limited reading skills, compared with 20% of those who arrived in the 1970-1979 period.

Reading skills highest in West

Residents of the Western provinces generally have higher reading skills than people living in Central or Atlantic Canada. In 1989, 70% of people in both the Prairies and British Columbia could meet most everyday reading demands. This proportion dropped to 65% in Ontario, 57% in Quebec, and 52% in the Atlantic provinces.

Conversely, only 11% of people living in the Prairie provinces or British Columbia had limited reading skills, whereas the figure was 14% in Ontario, 18% in Quebec, and 19% in the Atlantic provinces.

The Atlantic region was also characterized by a relatively large number of people who could read only simple text. In 1989, 30% of people living in this region could read only material that was not too complex. The figure in the other regions was 25% in Quebec, 22% in Ontario, and 19% in the Prairies and British Columbia.



Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities

In October 1989, Statistics Canada, on behalf of the National Literacy Secretariat of the Department of the Secretary of State, conducted a survey designed to assess the functional reading, writing, and numeracy skills of Canada's adult population.

The Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities consisted of interviews with individuals in their homes and involved a series of tasks designed to test reading, writing, and numeracy activities commonly encountered in daily life. Assessment of everyday literacy was restricted to Canada's official languages.

A representative sample of approximately 9,500 people aged 16-69 attempted some or all the tasks designed to measure their literacy skills. Residents of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, members of the armed forces, people living on Indian reserves, and inmates of institutions were excluded from the sample. These exclusions accounted for approximately 3% of the Canadian population.

For the survey, literacy was defined as the information processing skills necessary to use printed material commonly encountered at work, at home, and in the community.

From this broad definition, four skill levels were defined according to the reading abilities required to accomplish a variety of activities. These included:

Level 1 People at this level have difficulty dealing with printed material. They are most likely to identify themselves as not being able to read at all.

Level 2 People at this level can use printed material for limited purposes such as finding a familiar word in a simple text.

Level 3 People at this level can use reading material in a variety of situations, provided the material is simple, clearly laid out, and the tasks involved are not too complex.

Level 4 People at this level can meet most everyday reading demands.

For the purpose of this report, Canadians at Levels 1 and 2 are described as having limited reading skills. People at Level 3 can read material within familiar contexts, but they do not have sufficient skills to cope with more complex material. Those at Level 4 have reading skills adequate to meet everyday requirements.

Numeracy skills of Canadians

The Survey of Literacy Skills used in Daily Activities also tested Canadians' numeracy abilities.[1] The results were somewhat similar to those for reading skills.

In 1989, 2.4 million Canadians, 14% of the test population, had limited numeracy skills. These people were able, at most, to locate and recognize numbers in isolation, or in a short text, but they were not able to perform numerical operations consistently.

Another 4.1 million people, 24% of the population, could deal with commonly encountered documents and forms requiring simple operations such as addition or subtraction, but they did not have the skills necessary to meet most everyday numeracy requirements.

The majority of Canada's adult population, however, have numeracy skills sufficient to handle most everyday problems. In 1989, 62% of people aged 16-69 could meet most daily numeracy requirements.

[1] The numeracy section of the survey excluded people who did not have skills in either English or French, as well as people who were not asked to take the test because of their limited reading skills.

Gilles Montigny *is a project manager with the Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada.*

PERFORMING ARTS

by Mary Cromie



The performing arts include a broad range of events, from experimental theatre presentations to classical ballet productions, symphony orchestra concerts, and lavishly costumed and designed operas. In 1988, a total of 369 theatre, music, dance, and opera companies responded to Statistics Canada's annual survey of the performing arts. Together, these companies gave close to 38,000 performances that attracted 14.3 million spectators. The combined expenditures of these companies were $293.3 million, while their total revenue amounted to $293.0 million. Slightly less than half of this revenue was earned, with the remaining 52% consisting of subsidies, grants, and donations from government and private sources.



Companies and performances

Theatre companies account for the majority of performing arts companies. In 1988, the 220 theatre companies surveyed represented 60% of all performing arts groups who responded to the survey. Together, they attracted an audience of almost 8.5 million people, 58% of the total performing arts audience. However, average attendance, at 273 per performance, was the lowest of the four disciplines.

Music companies make up the next largest performing arts group. In 1988, 88 music companies responded to the survey and they accounted for 24% of all companies. Music performances drew almost 3.7 million people, which represented 25% of total attendance. In addition, these performances had the highest average attendance of the four disciplines (1,190 per presentation).

There are relatively few dance or opera companies. Dance groups (48) made up 13% of companies surveyed in 1988, while opera companies (13) accounted for only 4%.

The 1988 audience for dance performances numbered 1.8 million, or 13% of the total performing arts audience. Attendance at each performance averaged 654. The opera audience numbered 572,000 and accounted for the remaining 4% of total 1988 attendance. Each production attracted an average of 895 patrons, the

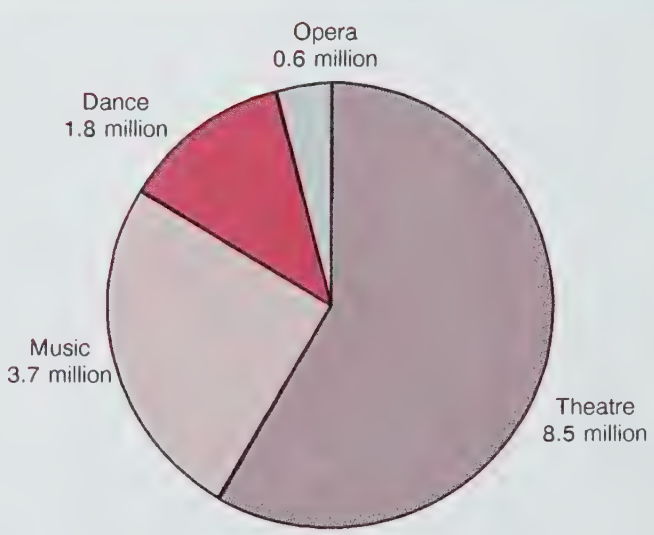
Performing arts survey

The performing arts survey has been conducted annually since 1985 as part of the Culture Statistics Program of Statistics Canada. The population surveyed consists of professional non-profit performing arts companies classified as primarily theatre, music (instrumental or choral), dance, or opera.

Data from different years, however, are not directly comparable, because some different companies have responded in different years.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Total 1988 attendance at performing arts presentations



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-209.

second highest average attendance of the four disciplines.

Home or away

Although most performing arts presentations take place in the companies' home area, a substantial proportion are presented on tour. In 1988, 35% of all performances were given by companies on tour.

Some types of companies are more likely than others to tour. Nearly half (49%) of dance performances in 1988 were presented by companies on tour. Also, about a third of theatre (36%) and opera (32%) productions were given on tour. On the other hand, tour performances accounted for just 19% of music concerts.

Youth

Many performing arts productions are oriented toward young people. In 1988, performances for these audiences accounted for 36% of all presentations.

Opera had the highest percentage of youth performances in 1988. That year, about half (52%) of all opera productions were for young audiences. This figure reflects the practices of several of the larger opera companies to open dress rehearsals to student audiences, to do extensive school touring, and to offer other educational services such as student workshops.

The other disciplines place less emphasis on youth performances. In 1988, 38% of theatre presentations, 26% of dance performances, and 21% of music presentations were directed toward young audiences.

Canadian content

The majority of performing arts presentations have some Canadian content; that is, the performance contains at least one work written, choreographed, or composed by a Canadian. Overall, 63% of productions conformed to this definition in 1988.

The presence of Canadian content varies widely in different disciplines. In 1988, the majority of dance (80%) and theatre (67%) performances had some Canadian content. The proportions were much lower for music (26%) and for opera (3%).

Balanced books

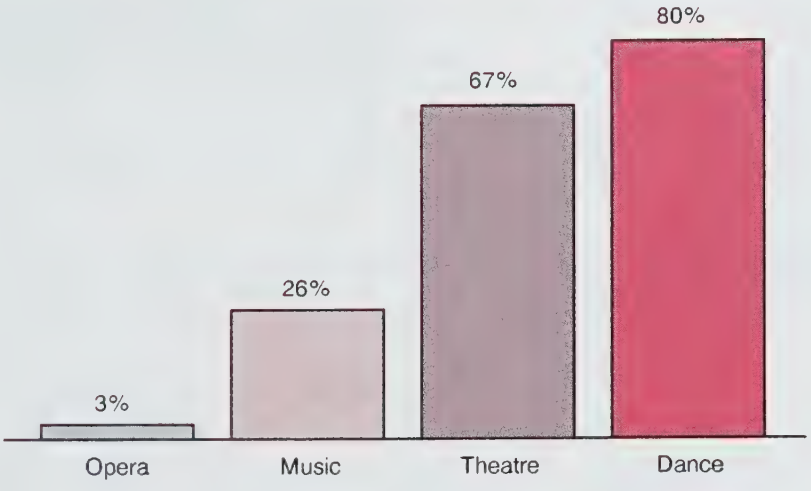
Since the performing arts survey is confined to non-profit companies, it is not surprising that overall in 1988, their incomes and expenditures were roughly equal. Total expenditures that year were $293.3 million, while revenue amounted to $293.0 million. The deficit was just 0.1% of revenue.

In fact, music companies were the only group with a deficit in 1988. These companies' expenses were $83.5 million, while their revenue was $82.7 million. The shortfall amounted to 0.9% of revenue.

By contrast, theatre companies spent $134.9 million in 1988, but received revenue of $135.3 million. Dance companies' expenditures and income were virtually the same at $45.3 million. Similarly, opera companies' expenditures and revenue balanced at $29.7 million.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of all 1988 performances with Canadian content[1]



[1] Performance includes at least one work written, choreographed, or composed by a Canadian.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-209.

Personnel largest expenditure

Personnel costs absorb the largest share of performing arts companies' budgets. More than half (55%) of expenditures went for wages and salaries in 1988. Other production costs made up 18% of total spending; publicity and promotion, 10%; and administration, 6%. The remaining 11% was spent on a variety of other functions, such as space costs, workshops, or schools and festivals associated with the companies.

Box office

Overall, ticket sales for performing arts presentations generated $98.5 million in 1988 and made up just over a third (34%) of total company revenue. Other earned revenue totalled $45.2 million and accounted for 15% of the companies' income.

Theatre companies realize a larger share of their revenue from the sale of tickets than do other kinds of companies. In 1988, 41% of theatre companies' income came from ticket sales. Opera companies received 34% of their revenue from box office receipts, while the figure for music companies was 28%. Dance companies drew 22% of their income from admission charges.

The private sector

Overall, corporations, foundations, and individuals provided 16% of the revenue of performing arts companies, a total of $46.6 million.

Such corporate and individual sponsorships and donations were most important to opera companies, accounting for 26% of their revenue. These sources also supplied 18% of music companies' revenue and 16% of the revenue of dance companies. Least reliant on private funds were theatre companies, which received just 12% of their income from such sources.

The public share

The largest share of performing arts companies' unearned revenue came from government subsidies, which amounted to $102.7 million in 1988. This represented 35% of their total income.

Of the four disciplines, dance companies were most dependent on government. In 1988, these companies received 41% of their revenue from government sources. At the same time, government subsidies provided about a third of the income of music, opera, and theatre companies.

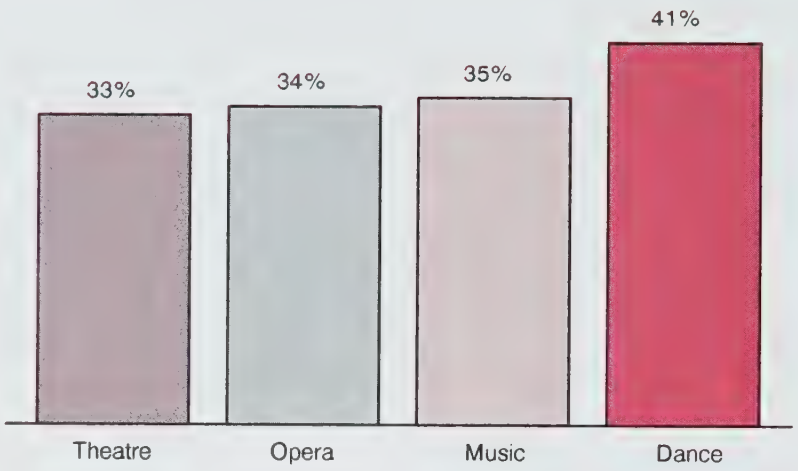
The contributions of different levels of government to performing arts companies vary. In 1988, revenues from

federal sources totalled $48.4 million and made up 17% of companies' income. This compared with $39.3 million (13%) from provincial governments and $13.6 million (5%) from municipal and other governments.

The relative proportions of income provided by different levels of government vary for each discipline. For example, in 1988, federal sources provided 23% of dance companies' revenue, the highest share for any discipline. In contrast, opera companies were the least reliant on federal sources. In fact, unlike the other disciplines, opera companies actually received more of their income from provincial than from federal sources: 16% versus 13%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Government share of performing arts companies' 1988 revenue



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-209.

Sources of performing arts companies' revenue, by discipline, 1988

	Theatre	Music	Dance	Opera	Total
			%		
Ticket sales	41	28	22	34	34
Other earned	14	19	20	6	15
Total earned	**55**	**47**	**42**	**40**	**49**
Federal	15	17	23	13	17
Provincial	14	12	13	16	13
Municipal/other	4	6	5	5	5
Total public	33	35	41	34	35
Corporate	5	9	7	8	7
Foundations	1	1	1	2	1
Individuals	2	3	3	8	3
Other	4	4	5	9	5
Total private	12	18	16	26	16
Total unearned	**46**	**53**	**57**	**60**	**51**
Total %	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
$ (Millions)	**135.3**	**82.7**	**45.3**	**29.7**	**293.0**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-209.

Household spending on performing arts

In 1986, 39% of Canadian households reported spending money to attend live, staged performances. This was up from 28% in 1978. The average amount of these expenditures in 1986 was $99, compared with $91 in 1978 (constant 1986$).

The proportion of households reporting expenditures on live performances varied in different provinces. The figure was highest in Alberta (42%) and Ontario and British Columbia (each 40%). In contrast, just 33% of households in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick made such expenditures.

The average amount spent on live performances in 1986 ranged from $118 in British Columbia and $112 in Ontario to $58 in New Brunswick and $52 in Newfoundland.

Urban households, particularly those in large cities, are more likely than those in rural areas to make such expenditures. In 1986, 41% of urban households reported spending on live performances; in cities with 500,000 or more residents, the figure was 45%. On the other hand, just 32% of rural households made expenditures in this category. To a large extent, this difference reflects the tendency for performing arts facilities to be located in urban areas.

As well, people in urban households spend more than others on live performances. In 1988, the average amount all urban households spent on live performances was $105. For those in large cities, the amount was higher at $122. Rural households making such expenditures spent half that amount ($60).

Mary Cromie *is a senior analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

COMMUTING TIME

by Judith Frederick

As Canada's workforce has grown, so has the number of people travelling to and from their jobs each day. This daily commuting brings with it a number of problems that are especially acute in large metropolitan areas, where a substantial segment of the workforce may live in outlying suburbs or smaller cities nearby. Among these problems are traffic congestion, pollution, accidents, parking, and the need for investments in roads and public transportation. Travelling to work is also a major claim on an individual's time, typically consuming three-quarters of an hour in each commuter's day.

According to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, conducted in November and December of 1986, 7.4 million Canadians, 38% of the population aged 15 and over, travelled to and from work on a typical day. Averaged over seven days, they spent 48 minutes a day commuting. This time included travel to and from paid work by different types of vehicles and on foot. Commuting did not include travel for business trips.

Busy days

As might be expected, the proportion of people who commute to work is much higher during the week than on weekends. In 1986, almost half (48%) of the adult population commuted on weekdays. The corresponding figures were 16% for Saturday and 14% for Sunday.

Also, travel time to and from work tends to be longest during the week. Each weekday, commuters spent an average of 49 minutes travelling. Those who commuted on Saturday spent almost as long

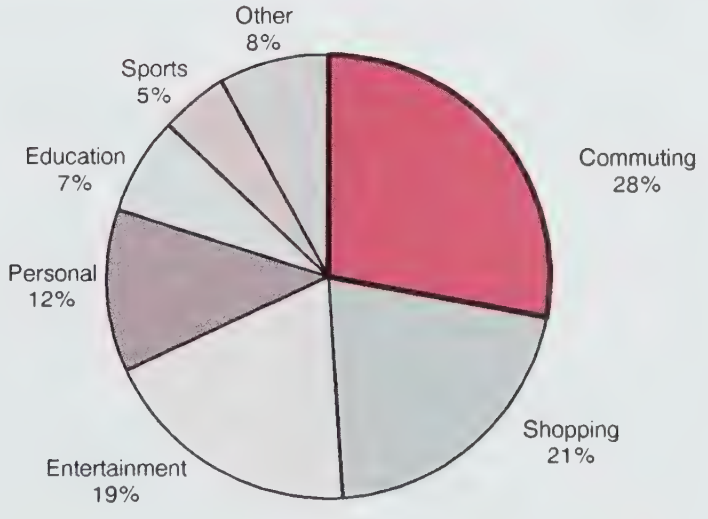
Other travel

Commuting to work was the largest single component of travel time in 1986, accounting for 28% of all travel. However, a number of other reasons bring people out on the road. Shopping accounted for 21% of all travel time, while getting to and from entertainment activities made up another 19%, and travel for personal reasons, 12%. The remaining travel time involved trips for education (7%), sports events (5%), organizational activities (3%), child care (3%), and domestic duties (1%). Excluded were business trips and vacations.

Participation in various kinds of travel differs for men and women. In 1986, as well as commuting, men were more likely than women to travel to sports events and entertainment activities. On the other hand, during a typical day, higher proportions of women than men travelled for shopping, organizational activities, child care, and education.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Distribution of all travel time, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

on the road: 46 minutes. On the other hand, commuting time on Sunday averaged 38 minutes.

Working age people commute most

Not surprisingly, the proportion of commuters is highest among people in the prime working age range. In 1986, 52% of 35-44-year-olds and 50% of those aged 25-34 commuted. At ages 45-54, the proportion was slightly lower at 46%.

Younger people, many of whom are still in school, are less likely to commute. Just 35% of 15-24-year-olds commuted in 1986.

The proportion of people aged 55 and over travelling to and from work is much lower. At progressively older ages, increasing numbers of people retire from the workforce, and as a result, the percentage of commuters declines sharply. In 1986, for example, the commuting rate among 55-64-year-olds was 28%, while just 4% of those aged 65 and over commuted.

Age, however, has little bearing on time spent travelling to and from work. Average daily commuting time ranged from 45 minutes for 15-24-year-old commuters to 51 minutes for those aged 35-44.

Patterns were similar for men and women, although at all ages, a higher proportion of men than women commuted. This is largely because at all ages, men are more likely than women to be in the labour force.

As well, Canadian men who commuted spent a slightly longer time on the road than did their female counterparts. Male commuters averaged 51 minutes a day, compared with 44 minutes for women.

Main activity[1]

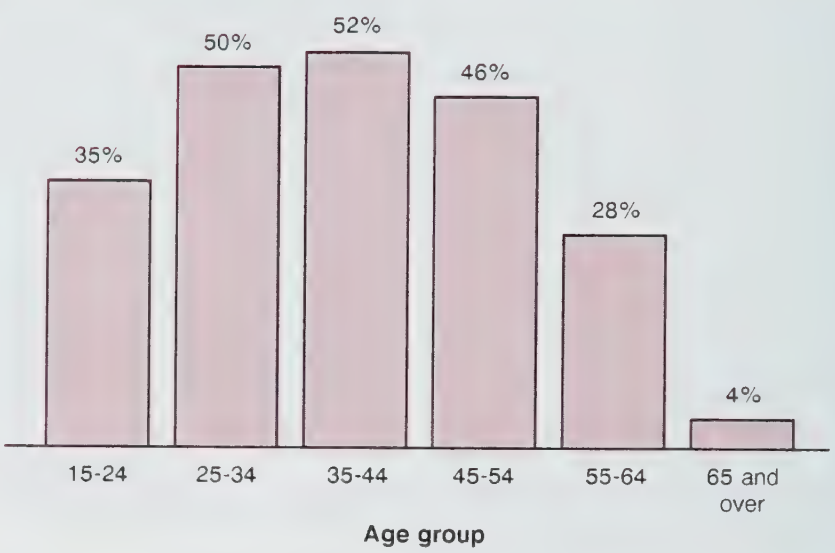
People whose main activity is working for pay have the highest commuting rate. On a typical day in 1986, 67% of people with jobs commuted. The comparable figure among the unemployed was 21%, and among students, 14%. Just 6% of people whose main activity was keeping house commuted. Very few retired people — only 1% — were commuters.

Commuting time also varied substantially, depending on a person's main activity. People who were employed spent an average of 50 minutes a day getting to and from work. For those who were unemployed, the time was considerably longer, averaging 64 minutes. This may reflect time spent travelling to several locations in search of a job. Daily commuting for students and people keeping house averaged 32 minutes. The small number of retired people who commuted did so for an average of 38 minutes.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of population who commute, by age, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1986.

Urban/rural

Urban dwellers are more likely than rural inhabitants to be commuters. While 40% of people living in urban centres commuted during a typical day in 1986, the proportion was 31% for their rural counterparts.

As well, residents of large cities, with the concomitant volume of traffic, spend more time on the road than do people who live in smaller urban areas or rural localities. Whereas commuters living in metropolitan areas in 1986 averaged 53 minutes a day on the road, the average was 43 minutes for those in smaller centres and 40 minutes for rural commuters.

[1] Respondents were asked to report their main activity during the week before the survey. This did not mean that they did not engage in other activities. Thus, someone whose main activity was not employment, for example, a student or retiree, might have commuted to and from a part-time job.

Judith Frederick *is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2
Annual growth (%)	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2
Immigration[1]	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024
Emigration[1]	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486
- goods sector (000s)	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740
- services sector (000s)	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745
Total unemployment (000s)	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018
Unemployment rate (%)	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5
Part-time employment (%)	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,110	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	*
% of families with low income	12.6	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.0	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	836.6[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.4	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	44.4	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	*
- women	48.3	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	23.9	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	*
- women	24.2	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.1	5.9	5.9	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	685	692	714	749	808	856	898	950
- property	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,514
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	135,536.6	141,988.2	143,661.4	148,891.5	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.1	59.9	59.3	59.7	*
- as a % of GDP	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.5	28.1	27.1	26.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.0	+4.4	+3.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0
Urban housing starts	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price ($ Can.) In Canada	Price ($ Can.) Elsewhere
11-612E	Patterns of Criminal Victimization in Canada	$38.00	$46.00
82-602	Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada	$25.00	$30.00
87-209	Performing Arts	$29.00	$35.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Canadian Society

Cat. No. 96-114 - Socio-economic Characteristics of the Farm Population ($33/$43)

Cat. No. 98-123 - Focus on Canada: The Inner City in Transition ($10/$11)

Cat. No. 98-124 - Focus on Canada: Canada's Youth ($10/$11)

Cat. No. 98-129 - Focus on Canada: Employment Income ($10/$11)

Cat. No. 98-130 - Focus on Canada: Affordability of Housing in Canada ($10/$11)

Cat. No. 98-132 - Focus on Canada: Ethnic Diversity in Canada ($10/$11)

General

Cat. No. 13-601 - Characteristics of Dual Earner Families ($25/$30)

Cat. No. 61-206 - Private and Public Investment in Canada: Revised Intentions ($29/$35)

Cat. No. 63-222 - The Computer Service Industry ($25/$30)

Cat. No. 87-504 - Domestic Travel: Canadians Travelling in Canada ($42/$50)

Cat. No. 88-510 - The Individual Canadian Inventor ($43/$52)

1990 ANNUAL INDEX OF ARTICLES

POPULATION

Spring — The Farm Community
Spring — The Inner City in Transition
Spring — Winnipeg
Summer — The Demographic Future
Summer — Time Use of the Elderly
Autumn — The Indo-Chinese in Canada

FAMILY

Spring — Household Chores
Autumn — Decline in the Number of Children

LABOUR FORCE

Spring — Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989
Spring — Regional Unemployment
Summer — Secretaries
Autumn — Changes in Women's Occupations
Autumn — Labour Force Trends: Two Decades in Review

HOUSING

Spring — Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form
Spring — Home Ownership
Spring — Shelter Costs
Summer — Home Improvement
Autumn — People in Co-operative Housing

EDUCATION

Summer — Changes in Educational Attainment
Autumn — Women in School Administration
Winter — Computer Literacy
Winter — Reading Skills

HEALTH

Summer — Accidents
Autumn — Profile of Canadians with Disabilities
Winter — Children with Disabilities
Winter — What Canadians are Eating
Winter — Sleep Patterns

JUSTICE

Spring — Household Property Crimes
Summer — Homicide
Summer — Policing in Canada
Summer — Violent Victimization
Autumn — Young Offenders
Winter — Perceptions of the Justice System

CULTURE

Winter — Commuting Time
Winter — Performing Arts



PLUG IN TO THE TRENDS

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS

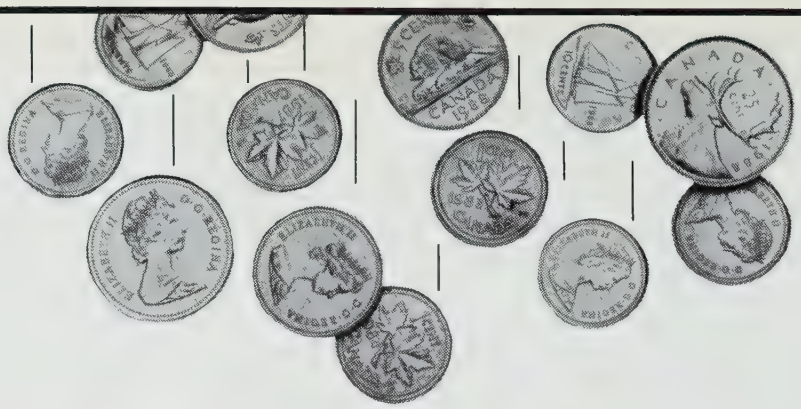
CATALOGUE 11-008E



AGING ☐ IMMIGRATION ☐ DRUGS

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada



What happened to the cost of living last month?

The Consumer Price Index will tell you.

Whether you negotiate wage settlements, administer COLA clauses in labour contracts, assess government policies or are involved in renewal contracts, child support or alimony payments, you need current and detailed information on changes in the cost of living.

Compiled monthly (and published within 20 days of the month's end), **The Consumer Price Index** gives you a precise account of the latest fluctuations in consumer prices.

This monthly publication covers:

- transportation
- food
- clothing
- housing
- health and personal care
- recreation, reading and education
- tobacco products and alcoholic beverages

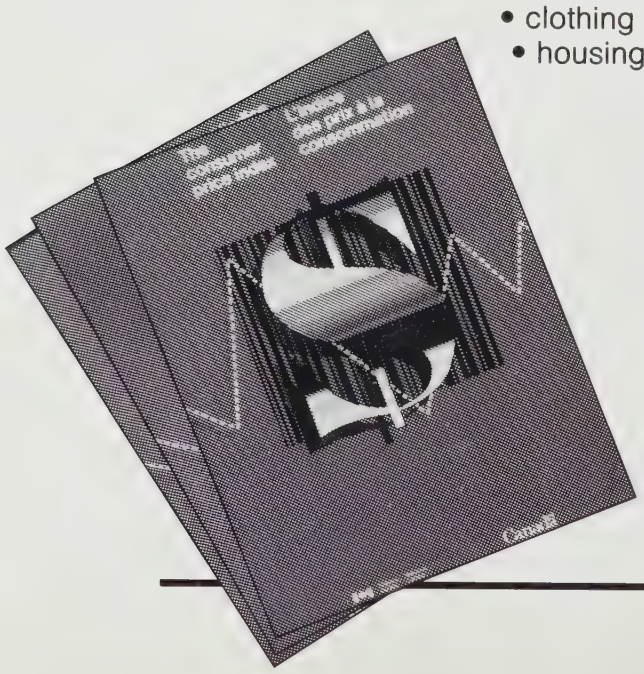
Over 400 items, ranging from milk to parking, household furnishings to reading material, are included.

Price indexes are presented nationally and for 18 major Canadian cities. In each issue you receive month-to-month percentage comparisons and trends over the last five years. And each issue analyzes the main causes of change.

Get the facts.

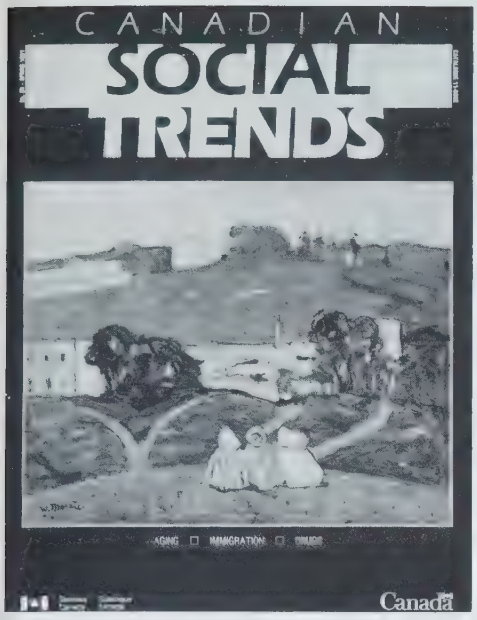
Subscribe to **The Consumer Price Index** (Catalogue No. 62-001) for the authoritative measure of the purchasing power of the Canadian consumer dollar. A subscription to this monthly is available for $93 in Canada, US$112 in the United States and US$130 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.



For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

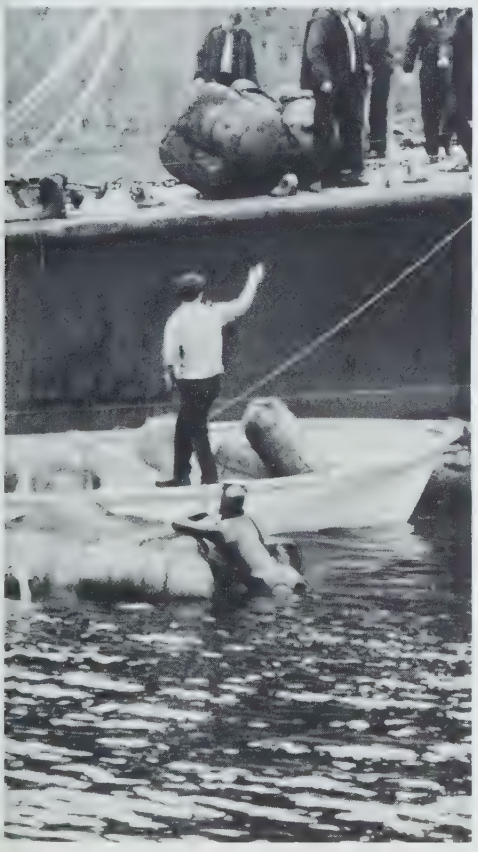
1-800-267-6677



Cover: ***Environs of Tangiers*** (1912) oil on canvas, 65.5 x 81.7 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

Born in Montreal, **James Wilson Morrice** (1865-1924) completed his legal studies in Toronto before departing for Europe to pursue his foremost interest in painting. His works were greatly influenced by artists such as, Matisse, Monet and Gauguin. Much of his time was spent in Paris and Africa, although during his earlier years in Europe, he returned regularly to Canada for a few months at a time to reunite with family and friends. His works have been acquired by various collectors, including the National Gallery of Canada.



CONTENTS

No. 20 - SPRING 1991

An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint 2
Dependency Ratios 3
by Raj Chawla
Implications of an Aging Society 6
by Mary Anne Burke

Immigration during the 1980s 10
by Ronald Logan

Seniors with Disabilities 14

Educational Attainment of Linguistic Groups in Canada 17
by Alain Baril and George A. Mori

Alcohol and Drug Use 19
by Marc Eliany

Drug Crimes 27
by Lee Wolff

Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1990 30

Social Indicators 31

1990 Annual Index of Articles — Winter Issue, Inside Back Cover

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor	Craig McKie
Managing Editor	Jo-Anne B. Parliament
Associate Editor	Mary Anne Burke
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Marketing Co-ordinator	Alejandro Solis
Writer/Researcher	Katherine Nessner
Editorial Assistant	Jillian Oderkirk
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Addiction Research Foundation; Cattroll/Ritcey Photo Assoc.; Health and Welfare Canada; Malcolm MacPhail; Photo Centre, SSC; RCMP Drug Directorate
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor
Acknowledgements	C. Bronson, J. Coallier, A. Haman, M. Hickey, S. Jacklin, A. Jones, M. Lisciotto, C. Prévost, C. Richard, M. Saint-Laurent, E. Scott, N. Turcotte, L. Verdon

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Industry, Science and Technology. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1991, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677.** Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, **Canadian Social Trends,** 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the Minister of Supply and Services Canada. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

AN AGING SOCIETY
ANOTHER VIEWPOINT



Dr. Ivan P. Fellegi, Chief Statistician of Canada, in his article, "Can we afford an aging society?", published by Statistics Canada in the October 1988 issue of the **Canadian Economic Observer**, *discussed the "greying" of the Canadian population over the next few decades. His article indicated that as a result of the aging of the population, "the total public cost for these three major age-related programs (health care, education, and pensions) would increase over (the next) 50 years at an average annual rate of 1.0 to 2.3%." Dr. Fellegi concluded that should economic growth continue at the rate experienced over the last 30 years, "we should be able to afford the public cost of an aging society."*

The following two articles provide a synopsis of another viewpoint on aging populations: that of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), an international organization whose membership is made up of the industrialized Western nations and Japan. The OECD view relies on different projections than did Dr. Fellegi to explore the impact of changing demography on public expenditure for social programs. Differing assumptions built into the models lead to somewhat different conclusions. Both models, however, demonstrate that the aging of the population is a very real phenomenon for which Canadians will have to make preparations. — Ed.

DEPENDENCY RATIOS

by Raj Chawla

The relative size of the population being supported by people who work is changing rapidly in Canada. For example, the demographic dependency ratio, that is, the number of people either under age 15 or aged 65 and over fell sharply over the last two decades relative to the population aged 15-64. According to projections prepared by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the ratio is expected to remain at this relatively low level until early in the next century. By 2010, however, as the large baby-boom generation begins turning 65, the dependency ratio is projected to start climbing rapidly. As a result, by 2030, Canada's dependency ratio is expected to return to the high levels that prevailed in the 1960s.

A major change in the composition of the dependent population has accompanied the changes in the level of dependency ratios. People aged 65 and over account for a growing proportion of this group, while children's representation is declining. As the large baby-boom population enters the 65 and over age group, it is expected that elderly people will make up an ever-increasing component of the dependent population. This shift will have major implications for spending on social programs, according to the OECD (see accompanying article), since program expenditure for elderly people tends to be considerably greater than that associated with people under age 15.

Changes in the size and composition of the dependent population are not unique to Canada. However, while there are similar trends in most other industrialized nations, the shifts in Canada have been more dramatic.

Sharp drop in dependency ratio

Since the mid-1960s, there has been a sharp decline in Canada's demographic dependency ratio. In 1987, for every 100 people aged 15-64, there were 47 people either under age 15 or aged 65 and over, down from 70 in 1965.

The Canadian dependency ratio is projected[1] to be relatively stable over the next couple of decades. However, around 2010, as people born during the baby boom start turning 65, the ratio will rise sharply, increasing to 67 dependents per 100 people of working age by 2030. The ratio is projected to remain at this high level until the end of the projection period in 2050.

More elderly, fewer children

While the overall dependency ratio in 2030 is projected to be roughly the same as it was in the mid-1960s, the composition of the dependent population will be different. Already, the elderly component has grown, while the proportion of children has dropped.

In 1965, only 19% of the dependent population were aged 65 and over, while 81% were under age 15. By 1987, the proportion of dependents aged 65 and over had risen to 34%, while the figure for young people had fallen to 66%.

Projections indicate that by 2030, more than half (55%) of the dependent population will be aged 65 and over, while just 45% will be under age 15.

International perspective

Long-term trends in the demographic dependency ratios of other major industrialized nations are similar to those in Canada. The United States, the United Kingdom, Japan, West Germany, France, and Italy also have been characterized by U-shaped curves in their dependency ratios over time and by a shift from youth to elderly in the composition of the dependent populations. Changes in Canada, however, tended to be more pronounced than those in other nations.

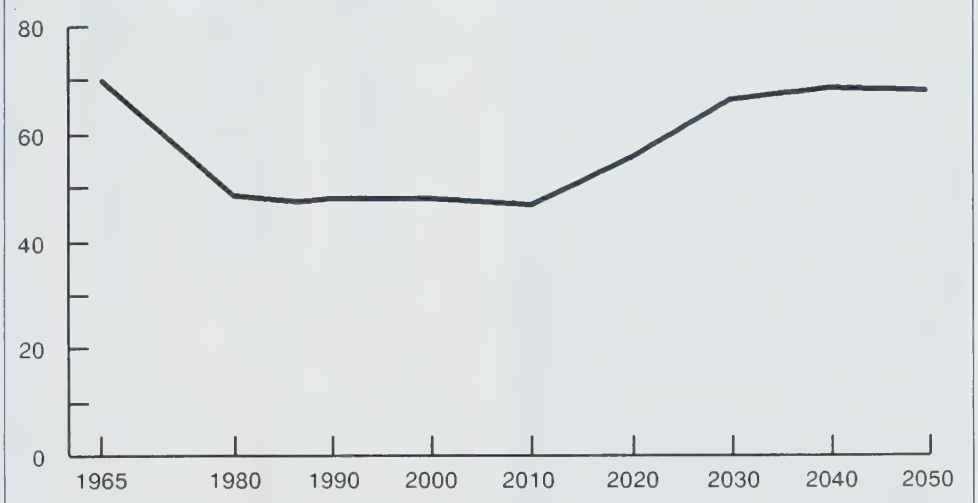
For example, between 1965 and 1987, Canada's dependency ratio fell 23 points from 70 to 47 dependents per 100 working-age people. The largest drop in the other nations was 16 points in the United States, while the decline was 10 points in West Germany, 9 in France, 5 in Italy, 3 in the United Kingdom, and only 1 in Japan.

Because of the difference in the magnitude of decline, Canada's dependency ratio dropped to fourth highest in 1987,

[1] Projections are from the OECD publication, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canada's dependency ratio,[1] actual and projected, 1965-2050

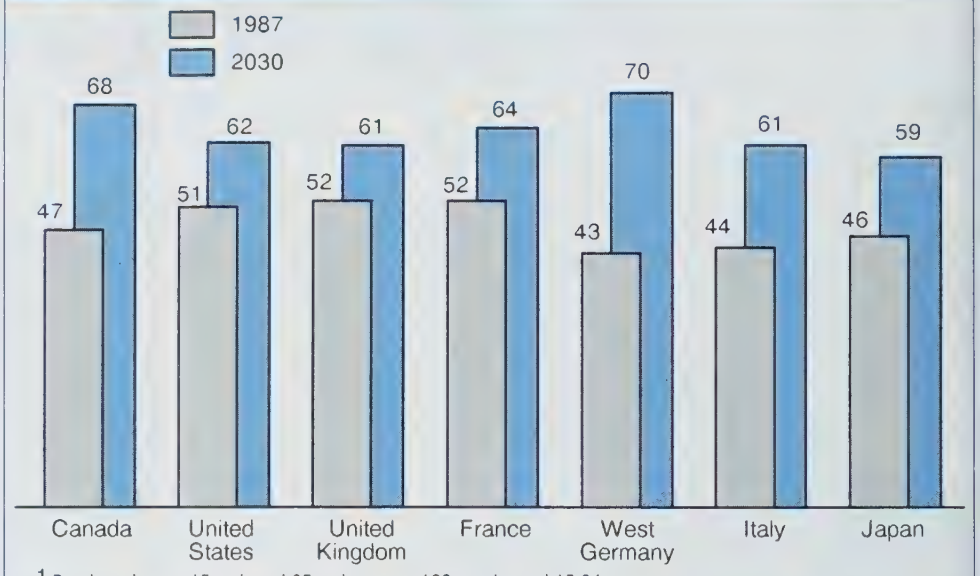


[1] People under age 15 and aged 65 and over per 100 people aged 15-64.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Demography Division; and OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988 and *Labour Force Statistics*, 1989.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

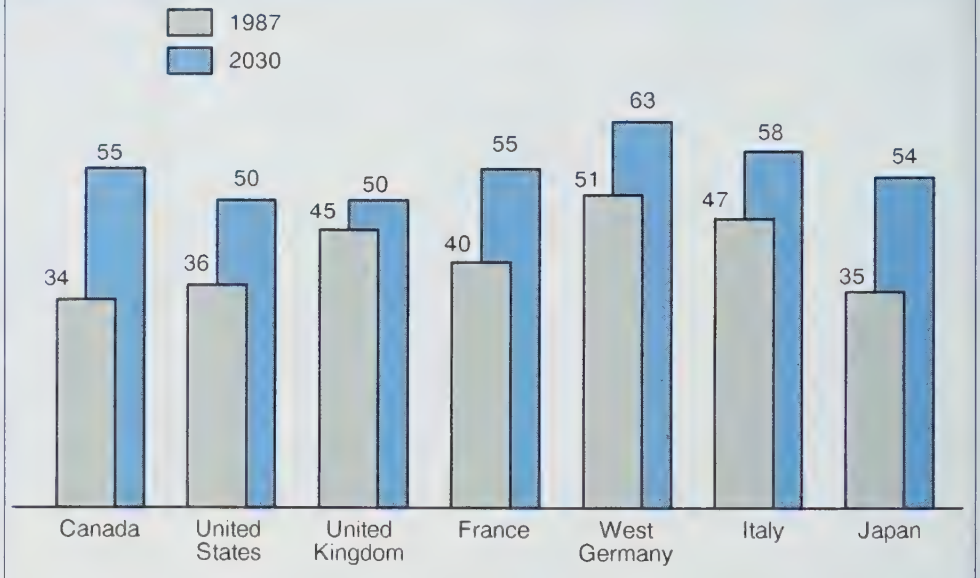
Dependency ratios,[1] Canada and selected nations, 1987 and 2030



[1] People under age 15 and aged 65 and over per 100 people aged 15-64.
Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988 and *Labour Force Statistics*, 1989.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of the dependent population aged 65 and over, Canada and selected nations, 1987 and 2030



Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988 and *Labour Force Statistics*, 1989.

whereas it had been the highest in 1965. In 1987, Canada's ratio exceeded West Germany's (43), Italy's (44), and Japan's (46), but was lower than that of the United States (51), France (52), and the United Kingdom (52).

Just as the drop in Canada's dependency ratio was greater than in the other industrialized countries, the increase, projected to start early in the next century, is expected to be sharper.

Consequently, by 2030, Canada's dependency ratio is projected to be 67 dependents per 100 working-age people, second only to that of West Germany (69). Projected ratios in the other nations range from 64 in France to 60 in Japan.

Canada is also characterized by relatively

Labour force-adjusted dependency ratio

Demographic dependency ratios, as discussed in this article, are crude measures of the dependent and the supporting populations in a society. They do not represent the exact support burden at a given time since, for example, variations in labour force participation and unemployment rates by age and gender are not taken into account. As well, they ignore contributions that the dependent population makes through such things as taxes, volunteer work, and social support networks. Nor do they take into account early retirement, or the possibility that some may choose to work beyond age 65. Legislation with respect to mandatory retirement has the potential to further reduce the usefulness of the measure.

Demographic dependency ratios, however, do allow the impact of demographic change on the support burden to be isolated from other non-demographic factors such as changes in unemployment rates, labour force participation, and levels of social benefits.

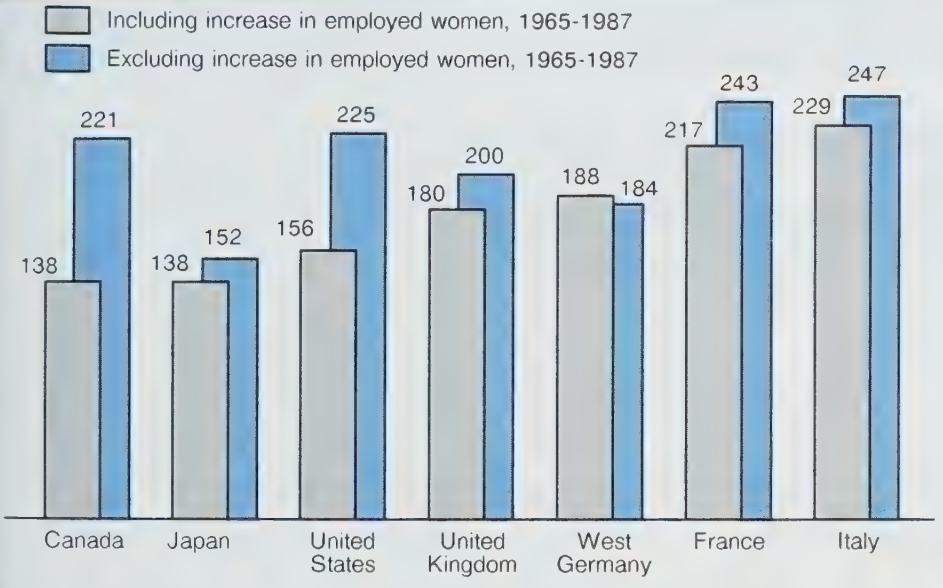
The dependency ratio can be fine-tuned in a number of ways by taking into account some of these factors. For example, the labour force-adjusted dependency ratio measures the balance between the employed population aged 15-64 and those not employed, regardless of age.

In 1987, Canada, along with Japan, had the lowest labour force-adjusted dependency ratio of the seven selected industrialized nations, with 138 people not employed for every 100 employed people. This compared with 156 for the United States; 180 for the United Kingdom; 188 for West Germany; 217 for France; and 229 for Italy.

One factor contributing to Canada's relatively low adjusted dependency ratio is the exceptionally large number of women in the labour force. If, for example, women's labour force participation rate in all countries had been the same in 1987 as in 1965, the labour force-adjusted dependency ratio in Canada would have been fourth highest instead of ranking lowest.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Labour force-adjusted dependency ratios,[1] Canada and selected industrial nations, 1987



[1] People not employed, regardless of age, per 100 employed people aged 15-64.
Source: OECD, *Labour Force Statistics*, 1989.

sharp changes in the age composition of its dependent population compared with other countries. As a result, although people aged 65 and over made up a smaller portion of dependents in Canada than in the other countries in 1987, their share is projected to be the largest by 2030.

Raj Chawla *is a senior analyst with the Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada.*



IMPLICATIONS OF AN AGING SOCIETY

by Mary Anne Burke

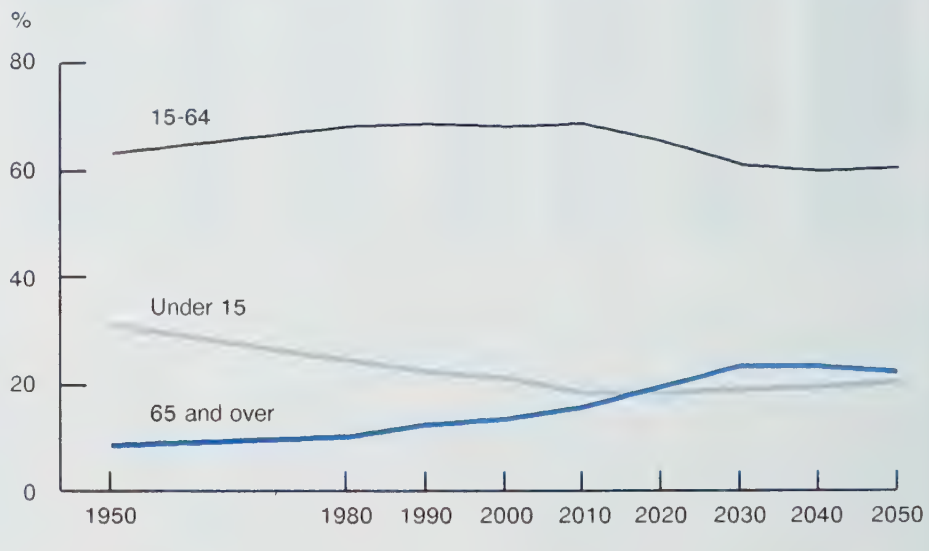


Canada, forty years hence, will be very different demographically from what it is today. The elderly population (arbitrarily defined as those aged 65 and over) is projected to increase dramatically as the people born during the baby boom begin to reach old age around 2010. By the year 2030, for the first time in Canada's history, people aged 65 and over are projected to outnumber dependents under age 15, according to projections from the Organization for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD). As well, the proportion of people potentially economically dependent on the population aged 15-64 will reach levels not experienced since the height of the baby boom in the mid-1960s.

An aging society has implications for the costs associated with social programs and for the ability of the working population to finance social expenditure. Overall, social spending can be expected to increase, with elderly people consuming a greater share of the resources because of

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Age structure of the population, actual and projected, 1950-2050



Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988.

increased pension expenditure and higher health care costs. Demographic changes will also affect the size of the labour force, and in turn, the capacity to finance social programs.

Most spending on the elderly

According to projections from the OECD, within the next fifty years, half of all social spending in Canada will be on the elderly, if current spending levels continue and demographic projections are realized. This compares with just 26% in 1980. Over the same period, relative spending on the rest of the population is expected to decline. The share of expenditure devoted to the young is projected to drop to 15% from 24%, and for people aged 15-64, to 35% from 50%.

Higher per capita social outlay on the elderly

While the bulge of people entering old age in the next century will be partially offset by declining numbers of young dependents, the OECD expects the demand for social program support to increase substantially. In large part, this is because per capita spending for elderly people in Canada far exceeds that for the young. Overall per capita expenditure in 1980, for example, was $6,500 for the elderly, 2.7 times greater than the $2,500 spent on the young, and just $1,800 for those aged 15-64.

Pension expenditure highest

Pensions (which include publicly financed old age, survivors' and permanent sickness pensions) are expected to account for the largest proportion of social expenditure. With the dramatic increase in the number of elderly people after 2010, overall pension expenditure in Canada is expected to increase 204% over the projection period – more than for any other social program. As a result, by 2040, pensions are projected to account for 38% of social spending, up from just 24% in 1980.

Spending on health care is expected to account for the next largest proportion of the social program budget. Following a projected 118% increase in total health care spending, such expenditure is projected to account for 33% of all spending, up from 29% in 1980. This is largely

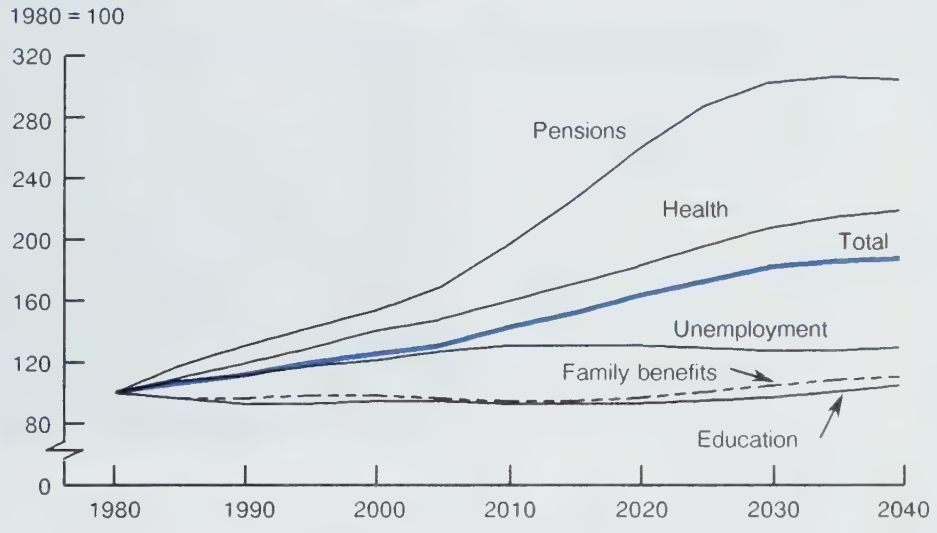
Social expenditure projections

The OECD projected changes in overall social expenditure by combining per capita social spending with demographic projections. Per capita social spending on education, health care, pensions, unemployment compensation, and family benefits was held constant at 1980 levels. Expenditure on housing and income maintenance programs was excluded from the equation. Mortality and migration were held constant at 1980 levels. Current low fertility levels were assumed to continue until 1995, followed by a gradual convergence to replacement level (2.1) by the year 2050.

Lower mortality rates and a continuation or drop in current fertility rates during the projection period would further increase the required level of social spending. Substantially increased migration levels, on the other hand, could have a slight mediating effect.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Projected growth of social expenditure,[1] by major program, 1980-2040



[1] Assumes constant real per capita expenditure, by age and program.
Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988.

Distribution of social expenditure, by major program and age, 1980 and 2040

	1980	2040 (projected)
	%	
Major program		
Education	32	18
Health care	29	33
Pensions	24	38
Unemployment	12	9
Family benefits	3	2
Age group		
0-14	24	15
15-64	50	35
65 and over	26	50

Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988.

because health care of the elderly is much more costly than for the rest of the population.

For example, in 1974, health care spending on people aged 65 and over was 4.5 times greater than for those under age 65. Health care of those aged 75 and over was even more costly, 6.7 times greater than for those under age 65. As the elderly and very elderly increase dramatically in number early in the next century, the impact of these numbers will be felt on the public purse, unless there are significant changes in health care expenditure patterns.

Expenditure on other programs is expected to drop as a percentage of all social spending. The proportion spent on education is projected to drop to 18% from 32% in 1980, with unemployment insurance declining to 9% from 12% in 1980, and family benefits, to 2% from 3%.

In large part, the reduction in proportions spent on education, unemployment, and family benefits will occur because growth in spending on these programs will be slower than that for pensions and health care. For example, over the projection period, unemployment insurance expenditure is expected to increase 29%, family benefits, 10%, and education, just 3%.

Growth of social expenditure

One result of these trends is that social expenditure in Canada would substantially increase over the projection period. Overall social spending in Canada is projected to increase 87% by 2040. By comparison, social spending in the United States and Japan is projected to increase 65% and 40%, respectively, while in many European countries it is expected to increase only slightly or even decrease. Since the study assumed constant per capita expenditure on the various social programs, differences in projected social expenditure growth rates of the various countries are related entirely to differing total population trends and growth rates of the elderly population.

Financing growing social expenditure

Social programs in Canada are financed largely through tax and social security contributions of the labour force. Future capacity to finance social expenditure will be affected by the rate of real growth in the economy, the number of employed people and their real earnings, and the rate of increase in the level of real social benefits.



Changes in the demographic structure of the Canadian population are expected to lead to substantial increases in social expenditure between 2005 and 2040. According to OECD projections, social expenditure is projected to increase 43% from 2005 to 2040, following a dramatic growth of almost 50% in the number aged 65 and over, and an increase of just 2% in the size of the working age population.

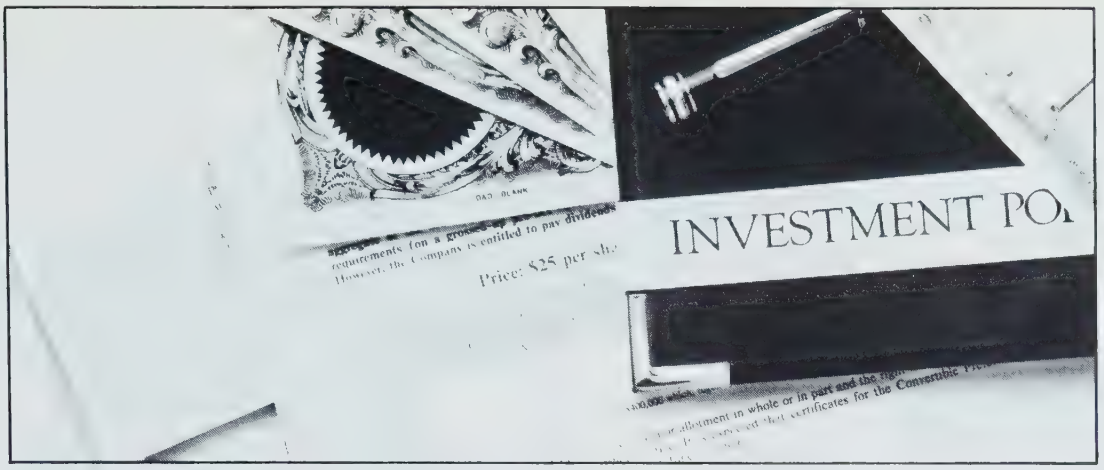
To finance this increase in social expenditure, the OECD projects that average real earnings of workers would have to increase 40% or 1.7% per annum from 2005 to 2040, assuming that labour force participation and unemployment remain at 1980 levels. Changes in these assumptions would affect the outcome of the projection.[1]

According to the OECD, a gap between the living standards of the working population and the levels of social benefits provided by the social programs would likely develop if increases in productivity were used to finance growing social expenditure. Given past social spending trends, however, the OECD expects that benefit levels cannot be held constant over a long period of time. For example, government expenditure on health, education and pensions had an average annual cost increase of 4.4% between 1961 and 1985, close to double the economic growth rate during the same period.

If the level of social benefits increases, as it has in the past, the OECD projects that Canada will be faced with sharp increases in tax burdens during the 2005 to 2040 period. Canadians will most likely have to choose between increasing tax rates and social security contributions or lower levels of social benefits.

[1] In fact, the labour force participation rate increased to 67% in 1989 from 64% in 1980. On the other hand, the unemployment rate in 1989 was at the same level as in 1980 (7.5%), following a peak of 11.8% during the recession of the early 1980s.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Associate Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.



Do you really have time to monitor over 200 Trusteed Pension Funds?

You do – if you subscribe to **Quarterly Estimates of Trusteed Pension Funds**.

The only periodical of its kind in Canada, Quarterly Estimates surveys the 200 largest trusteed pension funds, which hold 85% of the assets of all trusteed funds. The result is detailed, aggregate estimates of the income, expenditure and assets of approximately 3,800 funds operating in Canada.

Each issue gives you:

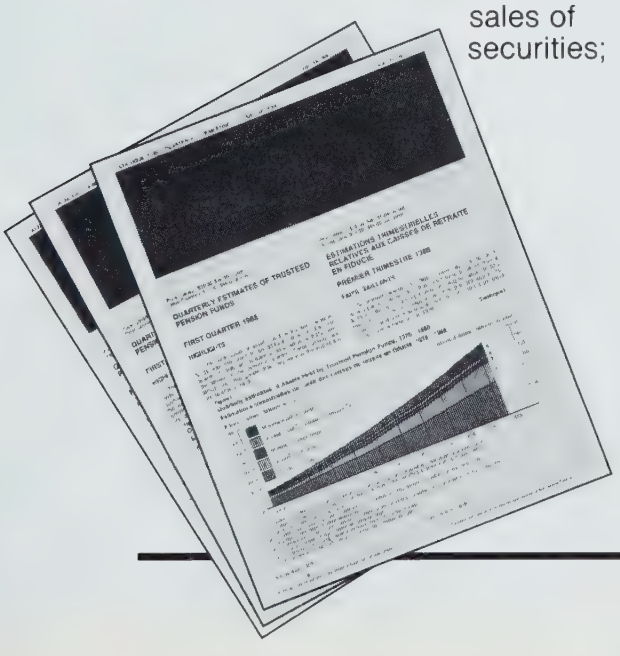
- current financial data for employee and employer contributions to the fund;
- investment income, profits and losses on sales of securities;
- pension payments and annuity purchases.

Distribution of investment portfolios among such vehicles as stocks, bonds, pooled funds and short term holdings is also highlighted. The accompanying analysis examines trends, growth and performance over time.

Get the numbers.

Subscribe to **Quarterly Estimates of Trusteed Pension Funds**, (Catalogue No. 74-001) for the regular update you need. A subscription to this quarterly is $44 annually in Canada, US$53 in the United States and US$62 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

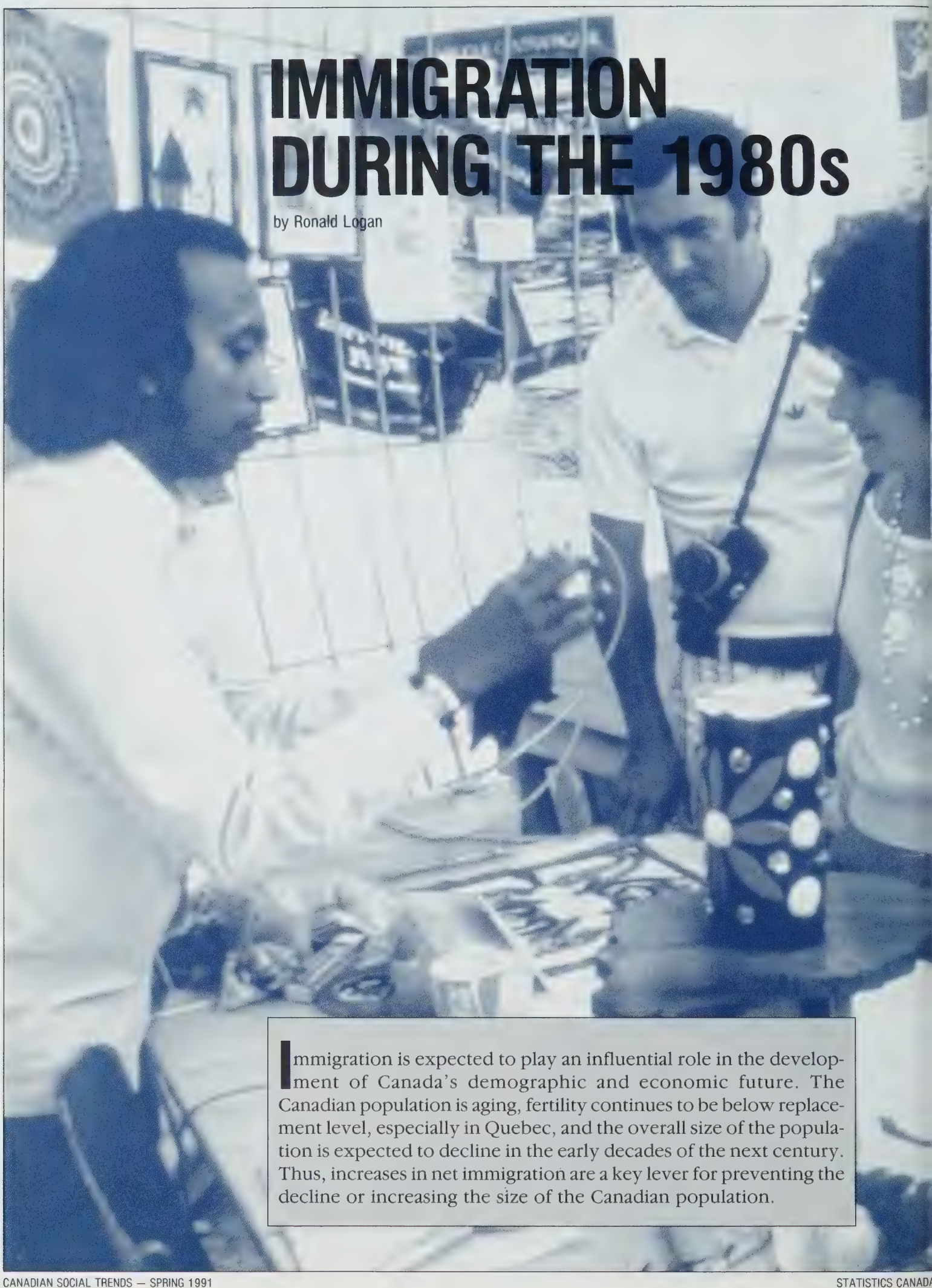


For faster service, using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free,

1-800-267-6677

IMMIGRATION DURING THE 1980s

by Ronald Logan



Immigration is expected to play an influential role in the development of Canada's demographic and economic future. The Canadian population is aging, fertility continues to be below replacement level, especially in Quebec, and the overall size of the population is expected to decline in the early decades of the next century. Thus, increases in net immigration are a key lever for preventing the decline or increasing the size of the Canadian population.

Current trends in immigration levels and streams have resulted in a large number of people with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds coming to Canada. The successful integration of these people into Canadian society is a major policy concern.

Immigration levels

In 1989, 192,000 immigrants were admitted to Canada, up from 85,000 in 1985. The increase was a reversal of a downward slide that started in 1974 and continued until the mid-1980s.

Large swings in levels have been characteristic of Canadian immigration since 1867, reflecting the fluctuation of immigration policy between openness and expansionism, and restraint and discouragement. Annual immigration peaked in 1913, with in excess of 400,000 recorded arrivals. In contrast, during the 1930 to 1945 period, annual numbers were consistently about 20,000. After World War II, there was a significant increase, with nearly 300,000 immigrant arrivals in 1957 and approximately 220,000 in 1967 and 1974.

Origins of immigrants, 1980-1989

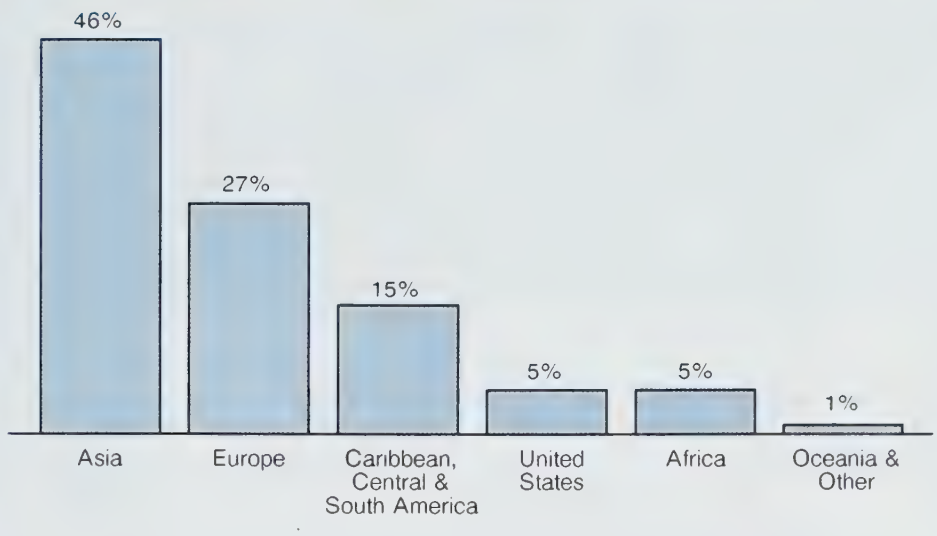
Most immigrant arrivals in 1989 came from Asia and Europe, reflecting the pattern that prevailed throughout the 1980s. In 1989, 50% of immigrants originated in Asia, 26% in Europe, 13% in the Caribbean and Central and South America, 7% in Africa, 3% in the United States, and 1% in Oceania.

This, however, is a considerable shift from patterns that characterized most of the century. Beginning in the early 1960s, the traditional European and North American source countries for immigrants to Canada have been increasingly replaced by Asian, Caribbean, and to a lesser degree, South American and African countries. Removal of national origin restrictions in 1962, introduction of the point system in the Immigration Act of 1967, and closer alignment of immigration to labour market needs are viewed as key elements behind the change in the composition of immigrants to Canada since the early 1960s.

The shift to Asian immigrants is reflected in the list of major source countries. In 1989, six of the top seven countries of origin were Asian. Poland was the top country of origin for immigrants to Canada, followed by six Asian countries: Hong Kong, the Philippines, India, Viet Nam, China, and Lebanon.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

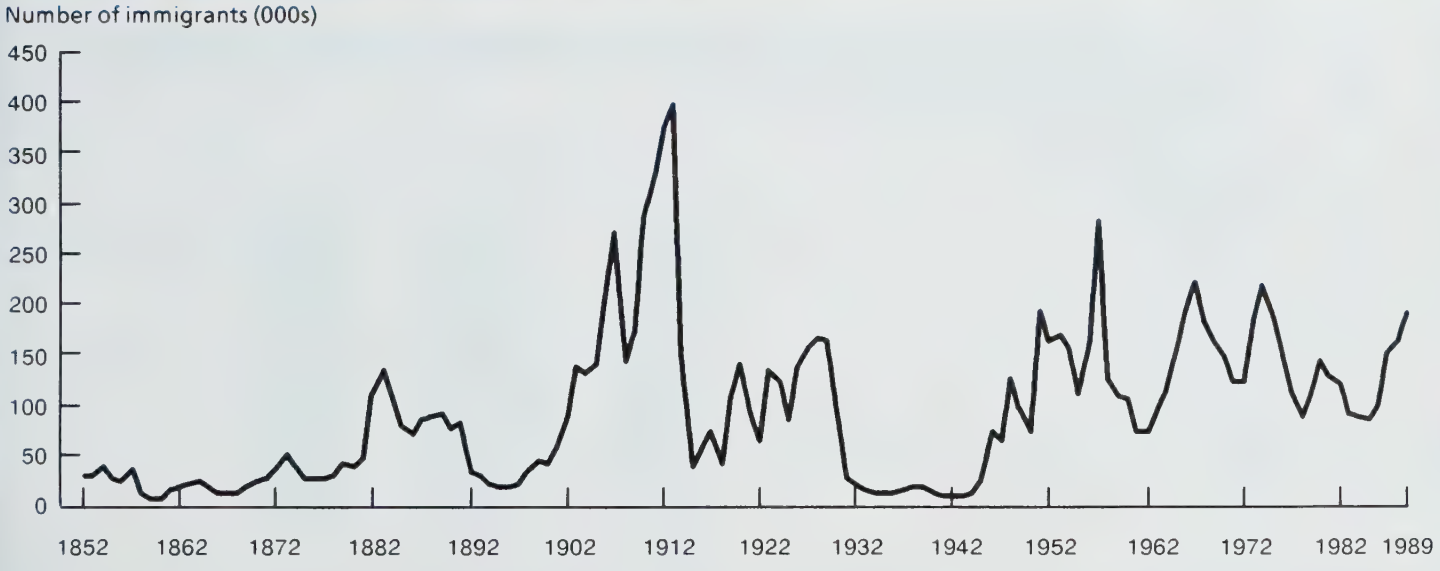
Immigrant arrivals, by place of birth, 1980-1989



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, Immigration Statistics Division, unpublished data.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigration to Canada, 1852-1989



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, Immigration Statistics Division, unpublished data.

Throughout the 1980s, the trend was similar. During the decade, Viet Nam was the number one source country of immigrants to Canada, followed by the United Kingdom, India, Hong Kong, and China. As was the case in 1989, 10 of the top 20 countries of origin during the 1980s were Asian. In contrast, during the 1956-1962 period, 17 of the top 20 source countries were European and accounted for over 90% of total immigrants.

Youthful immigrants

In 1989, most immigrant arrivals were young. Almost 80% were under age 40 and 56% were under 30. This was the case throughout the decade. Slightly more than three-quarters (77%) of all immigrants admitted to Canada during the 1980s were under age 40 and 57% were under age 30.

Immigrants originating in the Caribbean and Central and South America were especially concentrated in the under 30 age group. During the 1980s, 64% of immigrants from these countries were under age 30. As well, 57% of immigrants from Africa and the United States were under age 30, and 56% from Asia. And although immigrants from Europe and Oceania tended to be somewhat older, nearly 50% of them were under age 30.

Classes of immigrants

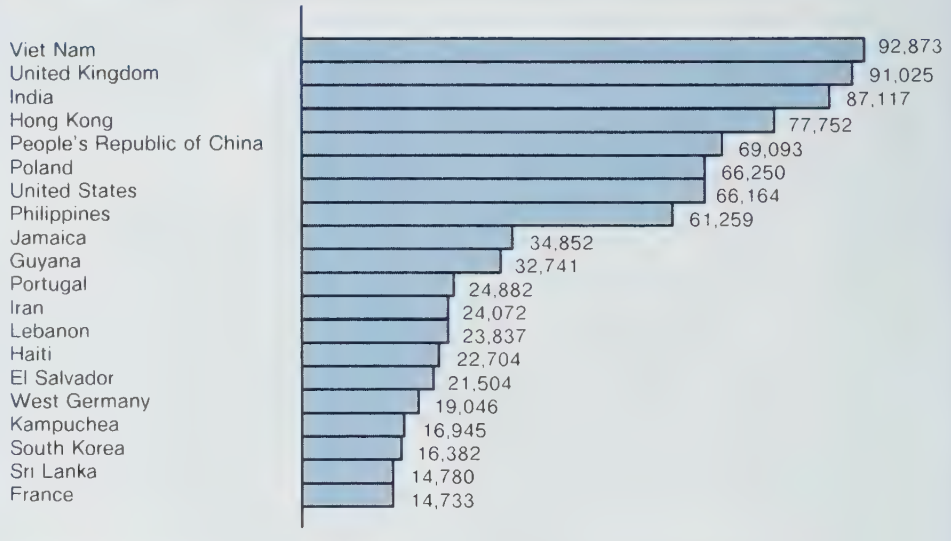
Immigrants are admitted to Canada under the following three broad categories: family, independent, and refugee. The independent class is the only category subject to point-system criteria and is composed of six sub-categories, including assisted relatives, entrepreneurs, self-employed, investor, retired, and other independents.

Since 1967, independent applicants have been rated on a point system based on their age, education, training and occupational skills, demand for their occupation in Canada, existence of pre-arranged employment, and knowledge of one of Canada's official languages. Pre-arranged employment and knowledge of French and English are waived if applicants have relatives in Canada willing to help them relocate and settle. These persons are still considered independent applicants, but they fall into the assisted relative category, established in 1967.

Most immigrants admitted to Canada in 1989 came as independent applicants. That year, 49% of immigrants belonged to this category, 32% were family immigrants, and 19% were refugees. Totals for the decade followed a similar pattern with

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

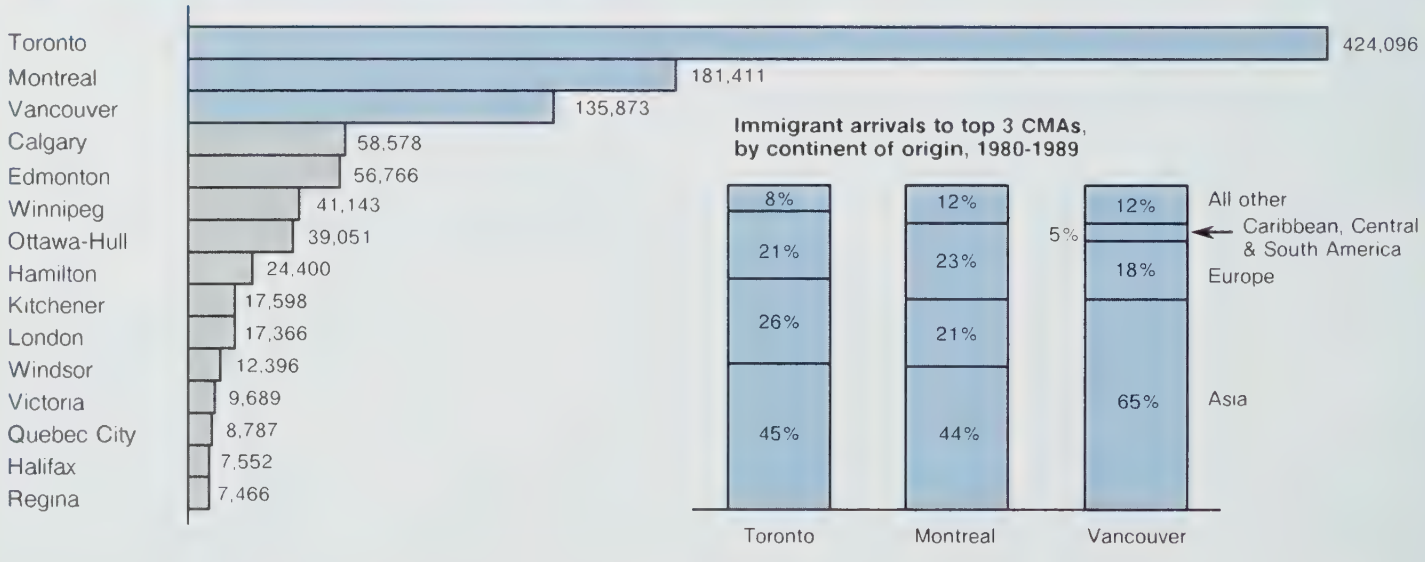
Immigrant arrivals, by top 20 countries of origin, 1980-1989



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, Immigration Statistics Division, unpublished data.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigrant arrivals of top 15 CMAs, 1980-1989



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, Immigration Statistics Division, unpublished data.



43% of immigrants in the independent category, 39% in the family class, and 18% refugees.

Immigrants classified as entrepreneurs significantly increased each year to nearly 7% in 1989 from less than 1% of total immigrants in 1980. Overall, entrepreneurs, self-employed, and investors accounted for 7% of all immigrants during the 1980s.

While the majority of immigrants were Asian, most self-employed immigrants were European. Throughout the decade, 47% of self-employed immigrants came from Europe, compared with 34% from Asia. Asians, however, were greatly over-represented in the entrepreneur and investor sub-classes, and slightly over-represented in the refugee class. Over the decade, Asians, who represented 46% of all immigrants, accounted for 80% of entrepreneur class immigrants, 92% of investors, and 51% of refugees.

Intended destinations

Most immigrants entering Canada during the 1980s settled in Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia, and Alberta. Over 90% of all immigrants reported these four provinces as their intended province of residence. During the 1980-1989 period, 49% of all immigrants to Canada reported Ontario as their province of intended destination. Quebec was the next most popular province with 17%, followed by British Columbia (15%), and Alberta (11%). Only about 4% of all immigrants planned on settling permanently in Manitoba, and just 2% in both the Atlantic Provinces or Saskatchewan.

Some regionalization by class of immigrant and continent of birth also tends to occur. For example, independent applicants were over-represented in Quebec and Ontario. Refugees, on the other hand, were over-represented in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, but under-represented in British Columbia.

While the main immigration streams tended to be to Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia and Alberta, there was a very noticeable flow within these streams from the various continents of birth. Asian immigrants most closely followed the overall pattern of regional distribution, with a slight over-representation in British Columbia. As well, proportionately large flows to British Columbia and Alberta came from Oceania and the United States. Ontario had an over-representation of European, Caribbean and Central and South American immigrants, while Quebec drew more than its share of immigrants from Africa and the Caribbean and Central and South America.

Urban concentration

Most immigrants entering Canada during the 1980-1989 period chose to settle in Canada's largest Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs). During that time, 60% of all immigrants entering Canada intended to settle in Toronto, Montreal, or Vancouver, and an additional 10% in Calgary or Edmonton.

The Toronto CMA was the most frequently cited intended destination among immigrants during the period, reported by 34% of all immigrants. Montreal was next with 14%, followed by Vancouver (10%), and Calgary and Edmonton (5% each).

Immigration flows to Toronto and Montreal reflect overall migration streams to Canada. Over the decade, 45% of those intending to settle in Toronto originated in Asia, 26% in Europe, and 20% in the Caribbean and Central and South America. Montreal was similar with 44% from Asia, 21% from Europe, and 23% from the Caribbean and Central and South America.

Vancouver's experience, on the other hand, was quite different. A full 65% of all immigrants intending to settle in Vancouver were born in Asia, 18% came from Europe, and just 5% from the Caribbean and Central and South America.

Ronald Logan *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

SENIORS WITH DISABILITIES

Having a disability can be a major barrier to full participation in Canadian life. This is a particular problem for Canada's elderly population. In fact, nearly half of all people aged 65 and over, and eight out of ten individuals aged 85 and over, have some form of disability.

The majority of elderly people with disabilities are able to lead relatively normal lives: for example, most live at home, and most are able to get out and participate in leisure activities. However, a significant proportion of elderly people with disabilities are severely limited in the range of normal activities that they are able to pursue because of economic and environmental barriers.

More than a million

In 1986, 1.2 million elderly Canadians, 46% of all people aged 65 and over, had some form of disability.[1] The proportion of the elderly population with a disability is considerably above rates among younger people. For example, 16% of people aged 35-64 had a disability, while the figure was 6% among 15-34 year-olds.

Greatest among the very old

The likelihood of having a disability is greatest among older segments of the elderly population. In 1986, 82% of people aged 85 and over had some form of disability, as did more than half (54%) of people aged 75-84. At the same time, 37% of individuals aged 65-74 had a disability.

Very old people are also the most likely to have severe disabilities. Almost half (49%) of seniors aged 85 and over with a disability had a severe disability. This was also the case for 30% of disabled people aged 75-84. In contrast, the proportion of disabled people aged 65-74 with a severe disability (20%) was close to the figure for people aged 15-64 (15%).

Mobility/agility problems

Problems with mobility/agility are the most common form of disability reported by elderly Canadians. In 1986, 81% of all seniors with a disability had a mobility/agility problem.

While many elderly people with these types of disabilities have assistive devices that enable them to be more active, many others who require such aids lack them. For example, 18% of those who needed a wheelchair did not have one. Overall, 9% of seniors requiring these and other mobility aids did not have them.

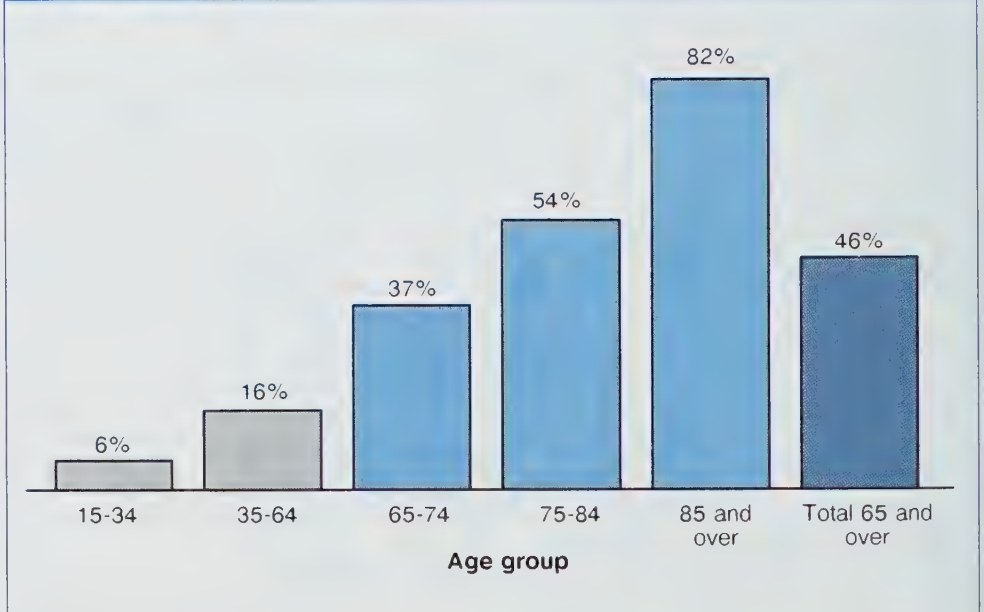
At the same time, 29% of seniors with a disability who needed special features to assist them to move about their home, as well as 39% of those requiring special features to assist them entering and leaving their residences, did not have them.

Significant proportions of elderly Canadians with disabilities also have problems using public transportation. In 1986, 25% of these people with access to public transportation indicated they experienced some difficulty using the service. Getting on and off public transportation vehicles was the most often cited problem.

Approximately 23% of seniors with a disability reported they were prevented from taking long distance trips because of their condition or health problem. In addition, of those able to travel long distances, 9% indicated they had some trouble using buses, trains, or airplanes. Again, the barrier most frequently cited was difficulty boarding and disembarking. The accessibility of terminals was also reported as a problem by a significant share of those unable to travel long distances.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Population with disabilities, by age, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-615.

Hearing/vision impairments

Hearing and vision problems are also common among the elderly. In 1986, 43% of people aged 65 and over with a disability had problems hearing, while 24% reported vision difficulties. Again, while many of these people had aids which alleviated the problem, significant proportions who required such assistive devices did not have them. Overall, 31% of seniors with a hearing disability were in need of a hearing device, while 10% had unmet needs for visual aids.

Most in the community

The majority of elderly people with a disability are able to live at home: in 1986, 84% lived in the community, and, except for heavy household chores, most were able to handle basic daily tasks without assistance.

Nevertheless, significant proportions of elderly people with a disability require help with some, or all, daily living activities. In 1986, 34% of people aged 65 and over with a disability required assistance shopping, and 34% needed help with housework. As well, 22% had problems handling their personal finances, 18% required assistance preparing meals, and 15% needed help with personal care.

The proportion of elderly people with a disability requiring assistance with daily tasks is highest among the very old. For example, 66% of people aged 85 and over with a disability needed help with shopping, 57% required assistance with housework, 49% had problems with personal finances, 41% could not prepare their own meals without help, and 27% needed assistance with personal care.

Families are the principal source of support for those elderly people with disabilities who require assistance with daily living activities, while agencies and neighbours also make important contributions.

Leisure activities

Most seniors with disabilities who live in the community are able to participate in leisure activities outside their homes: in 1986, 91% indicated they participated in such activities.

The Health and Activity Limitation Survey

The data in this article are from the Health and Activity Limitation Survey. This survey of people with disabilities was undertaken as part of Statistics Canada's ongoing commitment to build and maintain a national database on disability.

The survey was conducted in households in the fall of 1986 and in health-related institutions in the spring of 1987. The target population consisted of all persons with physical or psychological disabilities who were living in Canada at the time of the 1986 Census. The survey covered approximately 112,000 people with disabilities who lived in private households and 20,000 who lived in institutions. It included residents of all provinces and both territories, persons living on Indian reserves, and permanent residents of most collective dwellings and health-related institutions.

More information on Canadians with disabilities is available in *Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada,* Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-602; or by calling Janet Pantalone, Post-Censal Survey Program, 1-613-951-0025.

Elderly with a disability in institutions

While most seniors with a disability lived in the community, almost 200,000 of them (16% of the total disabled elderly population) resided in institutions. In fact, 98% of all people aged 65 and over living in institutions had a disability.

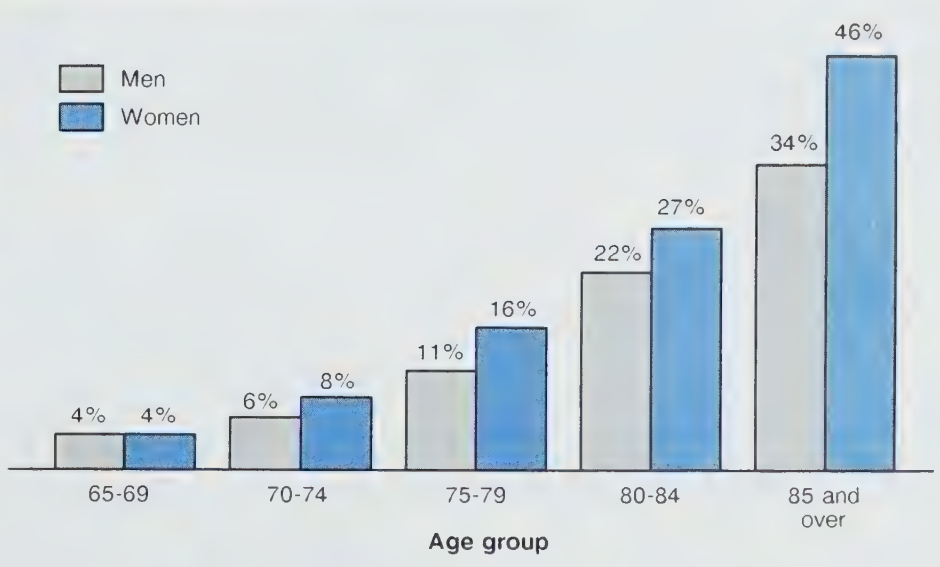
As might be expected, the very oldest people with a disability are the most likely to reside in an institution. In 1986, 43% of people aged 85 and over with a disability, and 25% of those aged 80-84 were living in institutions. In contrast, this was the case for only about 5% of disabled people aged 65-74.

Elderly women with a disability are generally more likely than their male counterparts to live in institutions. In 1986, close to half (46%) of women aged 85 and older with a disability were in an institution, compared with 34% of disabled men in this age group.

That elderly women with disabilities are more likely than men to be in institutions may, in part, be attributable to the considerably smaller proportion of these women who have spouses to help look after them at home. For example, just 35% of women aged 65 and over with a disability were married compared with 76% of men. In contrast, elderly women with a disability were more than four times as likely as men (56% compared with 13%) to be widowed.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Seniors with disabilities living in institutions, by age and sex, 1986



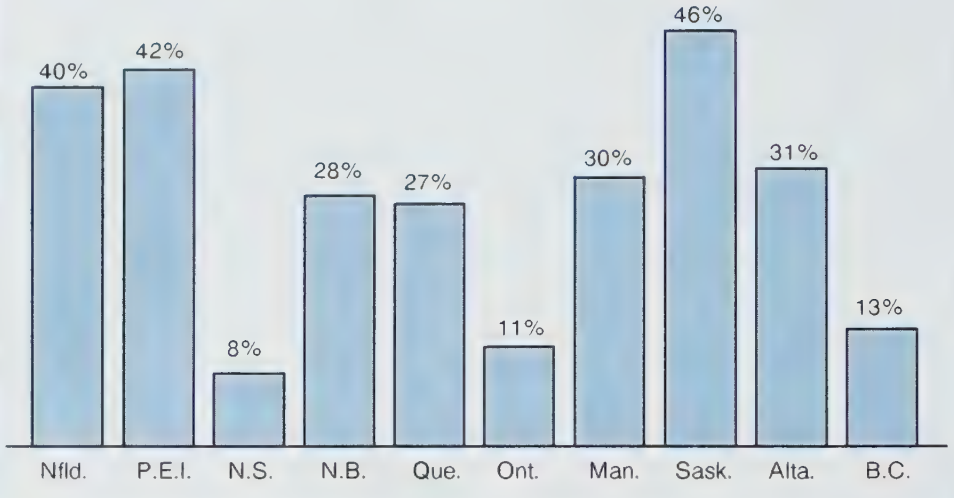
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-615.

[1] This report uses the definition of disability which has been adopted by the World Health Organization: that is, a disability is any restriction or lack of ability (resulting from an impairment) to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being. For a limitation to be considered a disability, it has to have lasted, or be expected to last, six months or more. Individuals are not considered to have a disability, however, if they use a technical aid that completely eliminates the limitation.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Seniors with disabilities making out-of-pocket expenditures on prescription drugs, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-615.

Visiting friends (89%) and shopping (84%) were the most commonly reported activities of seniors with a disability who did engage in leisure activities.

In addition, a significant proportion of seniors with a disability take part in physical activities. In 1986, 27% participated in some physical activity three or more times a week, while another 10% took part at least once a week.

At the same time, though, almost one in four (23%) seniors with a disability would like to undertake more physical activities. The vast majority (81%) of them reported that they did not participate more because they were physically unable to do so.

Incomes

The incomes of elderly Canadians with a disability are relatively low. In 1986, 60% of seniors with a disability had incomes below $10,000. In comparison, about 51% of seniors without disabilities had incomes below this level.

A relatively high percentage of elderly Canadians with a disability have incomes below official low-income cut-offs. In 1986, 22% of seniors with a disability were members of a low-income household. This compares with an estimated 17% of seniors without disabilities and 13% of all people aged 15-64.

Income problems are particularly severe among elderly women with a disability. Over 70% of these women had incomes below $10,000, compared with 45% of elderly men with a disability.

Housing affordability is also an issue for many seniors with a disability. This is especially true for those who rent. In 1986, 39% of seniors with a disability who rented their homes paid more than 30% of their income in rent.

Housing affordability was less of a problem among seniors with a disability who own their own homes; still, 10% of these people paid more than 30% of their incomes on mortgage payments in 1986.

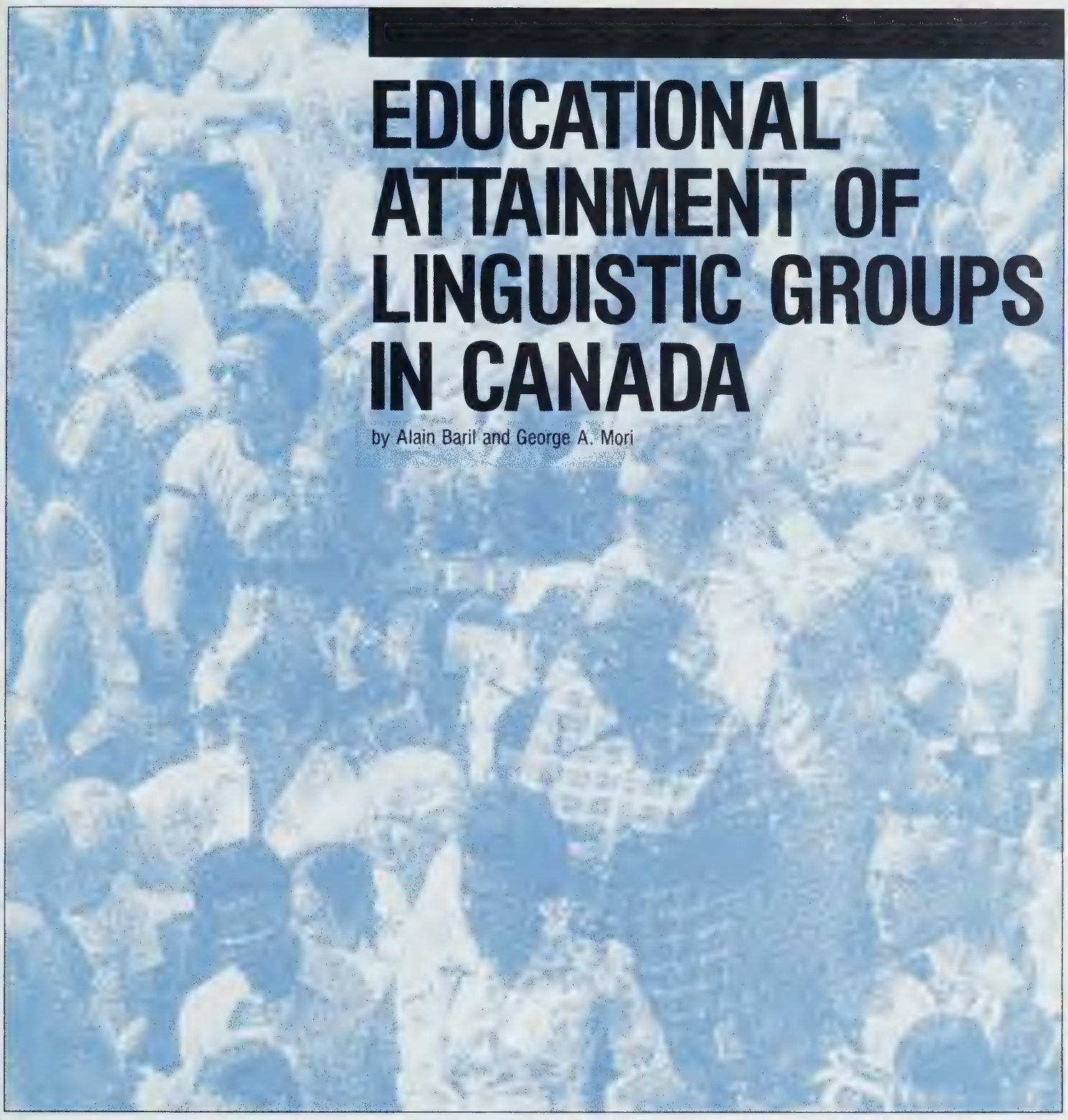
Income problems among elderly Canadians with a disability are further compounded by the fact that many have disability-related out-of-pocket expenses that are not reimbursed by insurance or government programs. In 1986, 20% of seniors with a disability reported out-of-pocket expenses for prescription and non-prescription drugs. In addition, 9% said they made such expenditures on transportation, while 7% reported expenses on special supplies, 6% made personal service expenditures, and 5% had expenses on other medical services.

There is, however, considerable variation across the country in the proportion of elderly people with a disability reporting out-of-pocket expenses. For example, around 40% of seniors with a disability in Saskatchewan (46%), Prince Edward Island (42%), and Newfoundland (40%) had expenses for prescription and non-prescription drugs; in contrast, the figures were only around 10% in Nova Scotia (8%), Ontario (11%), and British Columbia (13%).

Conclusion

Although the barriers facing disabled seniors are numerous, many services and programs have been developed to enable them to live independently. As a result, these people can more easily undertake their own daily living activities such as shopping, personal care, and personal finances. Many barriers, however, still affect the lives of a significant share of the disabled elderly population, and the further reduction and eradication of these barriers will help the aging population in Canada to pursue productive and active lives.

• *This article has been adapted from Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-615,* ***Barriers Confronting Seniors with Disabilities in Canada****, by Dr. Peter A. Dunn. Dr. Dunn undertook this research with the Center for Social Welfare Studies, Faculty of Social Work, Wilfrid Laurier University.*



EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF LINGUISTIC GROUPS IN CANADA

by Alain Baril and George A. Mori

Canadians are better educated than ever before. Steady improvements in levels of educational attainment occurred over the past few decades.[1] More younger Canadians today have university degrees and fewer have less than a Grade 9 education than did earlier cohorts. But while the gaps are narrowing, there remain differences in the level of educational attainment among Canada's linguistic groups.[2]

Despite improvements in their overall educational attainment, francophones continue to lag behind anglophones. Allophones – those with a single mother tongue that is neither English nor French – have the highest proportion with a university education. And while allophones are also the most highly represented among those with less than Grade 9, there are indications that this, too, is changing.

English-French differences

Anglophones in Canada tend to have more years of formal schooling than do francophones. In 1986, 10% of anglophones had a university degree, compared with 8% of francophones. At the same time, just 11% of anglophones had less than a Grade 9 education, compared with 24% of francophones.

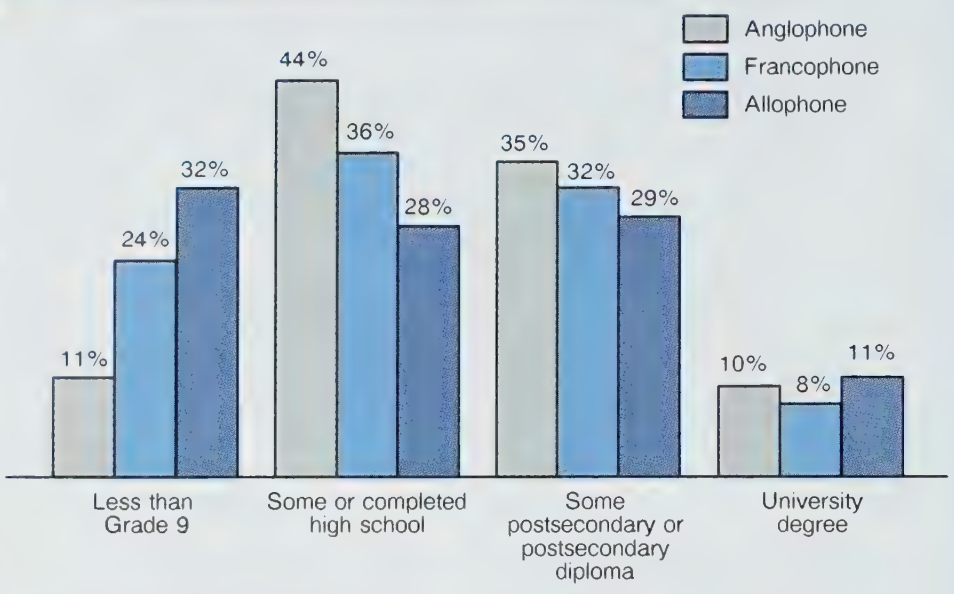
[1] For an overview of education trends, please see the article, "Changes in Educational Attainment," by George A. Mori and Brian Burke in the Summer 1990 issue of **Canadian Social Trends**.

[2] Data in this article are based on persons who provided only a single response to the mother tongue question.

However, the differences in educational attainment between the two linguistic groups have become smaller over time. For example, among those who have recently finished school, differences are much smaller than was the case for earlier cohorts. In 1986, there was a 2 percentage-point difference between the proportion of anglophones and francophones aged 15-24 with less than Grade 9. The gap was just 7 percentage points among those aged 25-44, increased to 26 percentage points among 45-64-year-olds, and to 32 percentage points among those aged 65 and over.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Highest level of schooling, by linguistic group, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Highest level of schooling, by age and linguistic group, 1986

	Less than Grade 9	Grades 9-13		Some post-secondary	University degree	Total
		No certificate	With certificate			
			%			
Aged 15-24						
Anglophone	3.8	45.6	16.1	30.5	4.1	100.0
Francophone	5.7	32.7	17.9	40.2	3.5	100.0
Allophone	9.9	37.9	14.8	32.4	5.0	100.0
Total	**4.8**	**41.8**	**16.5**	**33.0**	**4.0**	**100.0**
Aged 25-44						
Anglophone	4.5	23.7	13.6	42.4	15.9	100.0
Francophone	11.3	19.9	18.6	38.2	12.0	100.0
Allophone	16.7	17.0	10.5	37.0	18.8	100.0
Total	**7.9**	**21.9**	**14.5**	**40.6**	**15.1**	**100.0**
Aged 45-64						
Anglophone	17.7	31.8	9.5	31.8	9.1	100.0
Francophone	44.1	15.6	11.9	22.4	5.9	100.0
Allophone	41.0	17.7	6.2	27.6	7.5	100.0
Total	**29.2**	**24.9**	**9.5**	**28.6**	**7.9**	**100.0**
Aged 65 and over						
Anglophone	32.9	31.0	8.2	23.0	4.9	100.0
Francophone	64.4	13.1	7.6	11.9	3.0	100.0
Allophone	63.4	14.7	4.6	13.9	3.4	100.0
Total	**45.6**	**23.9**	**7.4**	**18.9**	**4.2**	**100.0**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Allophones

Allophones fall into the two extremes of educational attainment. On the one hand, they have the highest proportion of university graduates and, on the other, the highest proportion with less than a Grade 9 education. In 1986, 11% of allophones had a university degree, and 32% had less than Grade 9.

The gap between the proportion of allophones with less than Grade 9 and similarly educated people from the two other linguistic groups has been narrowing over time. However, it has been widening among those with a university degree. For example, in 1986, 19% of allophones aged 25-44 had a university degree, compared with 16% of anglophones and 12% of francophones in the same age group. Among those who had, for the most part, finished their schooling at an earlier date, anglophones had the highest proportion with a university degree. In 1986, 5% of anglophones aged 65 and over had a university degree, compared with 3% of similarly aged allophones and francophones.

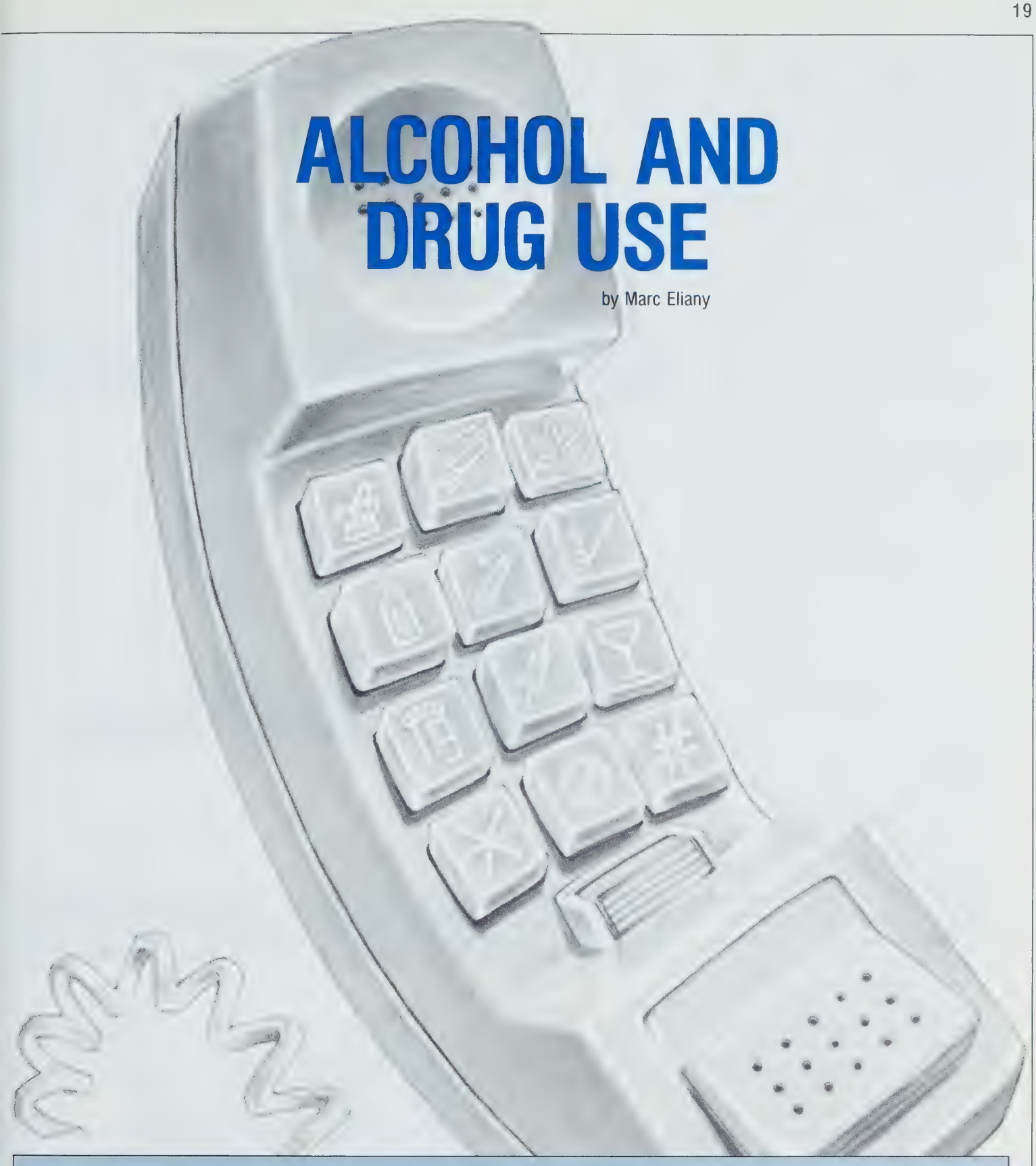
Exception to recent trends

While levels of educational attainment have generally increased in Quebec, there are indications that the proportion of young men with less than a Grade 9 education has increased, in contrast to the trend across the country. Between 1981 and 1986, the proportion of anglophone males aged 15-24 with less than Grade 9 increased from 4.7% to 5.1%. Among comparable francophones, the proportion increased from 6.5% to 6.8%, and among allophones, from 10.4% to 10.7%.

Both authors, **Alain Baril** *and* **George A. Mori**, *are analysts with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

ALCOHOL AND DRUG USE

by Marc Eliany



National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey

The National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey (NADS) was conducted by Statistics Canada on behalf of Health and Welfare Canada in March 1989. Data were collected through telephone interviews from a sample of close to 12,000 Canadians aged 15 and over in the ten provinces, excluding residents of institutions such as prisons and hospitals. Also excluded were the Territories, where separate surveys must be conducted due to special sampling requirements.

Despite the size and scope of the survey, limitations to the data exist. For example, not all drugs could be considered in this survey. Therefore, the focus was on those drugs, including alcohol, that, by virtue of their frequency, quantity and circumstances of use, were most likely to be linked to health or other problems.

A major concern in any survey of alcohol and other drug use is the accuracy of self-reported data. It is believed that some degree of under reporting is likely to occur. However, research has shown self-reports of drinking to be quite reliable. Also, the high response rate (79%) to the NADS greatly increases the probability of data being reliable and accurate.



ALCOHOL

The drinking patterns of adult Canadians have changed over the last decade. Although most adults consume alcoholic beverages from time to time, there has been a trend toward moderation. A smaller proportion of people are drinking, those who do drink are consuming less, and many have stopped drinking. Even so, a substantial number of Canadians have experienced problems because of their own or someone else's alcohol consumption. These difficulties can involve health, finances, home life, and friendships.

Most Canadians drink

While the majority of Canadians drink alcoholic beverages, the proportion who do so has declined during the past decade. In 1989, 78% of people aged 15 and over identified themselves as current drinkers in that they had consumed at least one drink in the previous year. This proportion was down from 82% in 1978. (A drink was defined as one bottle of beer or glass of draft; one glass of wine or a wine cooler; or one straight or mixed drink with 44 ml (1.5 oz.) of hard liquor.)

Drinking less

At the end of the 1980s, Canadian adults were not drinking as often as they did at the end of the 1970s. In 1989, about a quarter (26%) of current drinkers reported having consumed alcohol less than once per month during the previous year. In 1978, just 15% of current drinkers had limited the frequency of their consumption to this extent.

In addition, the average number of drinks consumed has declined. In 1989, current drinkers averaged 3.7 drinks per week, down from 5.1 in 1985.

Moreover, average weekly consumption figures tend to be inflated by the heavy drinking of a small minority. For example, in 1989, 6% of current drinkers reported having 15 or more drinks during the week before the survey; another 9% had 8 to 14 drinks. On the other hand, almost half of current drinkers (47%) did not have a drink that week, and 38% had 1 to 7 drinks.

As well, a significant percentage of Canadians have stopped drinking. Former drinkers accounted for 16% of adults in 1989, up sharply from just 4% in 1978.

The proportion of people who have never consumed alcohol was actually lower in 1989 than in 1978. In 1989, 7% of adults identified themselves as never having been drinkers, whereas the figure for 1978 was 13%.

Higher proportion of drinkers in West

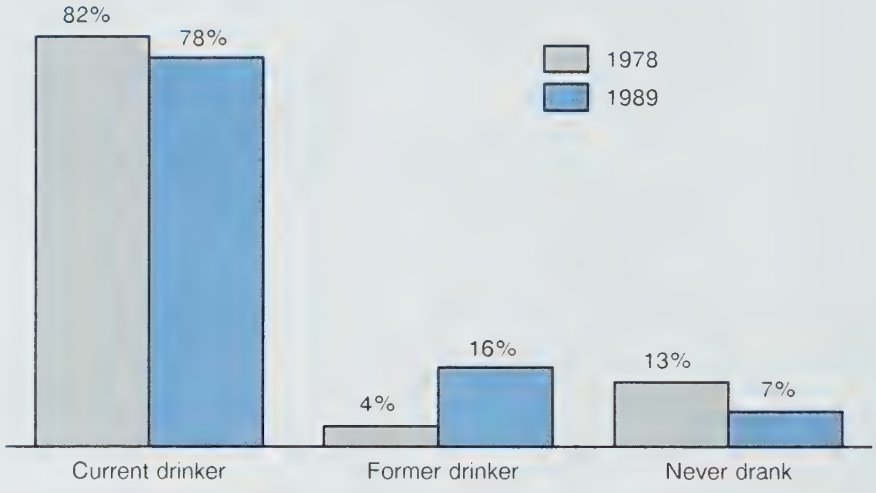
In general, current drinkers make up a higher percentage of the population in Western Canada than in the Eastern provinces.

In 1989, the proportion of people who were current drinkers was highest in British Columbia (83%), closely followed by Alberta (82%).

The prevalence of current drinkers among residents of Manitoba (79%), Saskatchewan and Ontario (both 78%), and Quebec (76%) was closer to the national figure (78%). By contrast, current drinkers made up the smallest share of the population in Prince Edward Island (64%). Rates were also relatively low in Newfoundland and New Brunswick (both 68%) and Nova Scotia (71%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

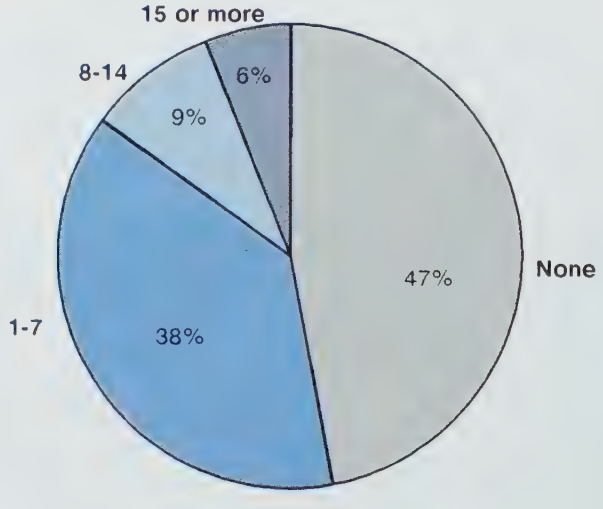
Drinking status of population aged 15 and over, 1978 and 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1978 Canada Health Survey* and *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Number of drinks consumed by current drinkers in week before survey, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

Most common among young

Drinking tends to be most common among young adults. In 1989, the proportions of current drinkers peaked at ages 20-24 (88%) and ages 25-34 (87%).

Among 15-19-year-olds, drinking was less prevalent, with 74% reporting that they had consumed alcohol in the previous year. However, legislation governing drinking ages limits the availability of alcohol for many teenagers. The legal drinking age is 19 in all provinces except Quebec, Manitoba, and Alberta, where it is 18.

The proportion of current drinkers declines in successively older age groups. While 83% of 35-44-year-olds were current drinkers in 1989, the figure dropped to 77% at ages 45-54, 72% at ages 55-64, and 54% among people aged 65 and over.

More drinking among men

Regardless of age, men are more likely than women to consume alcohol. Overall, 84% of men aged 15 and over were current drinkers in 1989, compared with 72% of women.

Differences in the use of alcohol by men and women widen at older ages. For example, among 20-24-year-olds, 93% of men and 83% of women were current drinkers – a difference of 10 percentage points. By ages 65 and over, the comparable figures were 66% for men and 46% for women – a 20-percentage point gap.

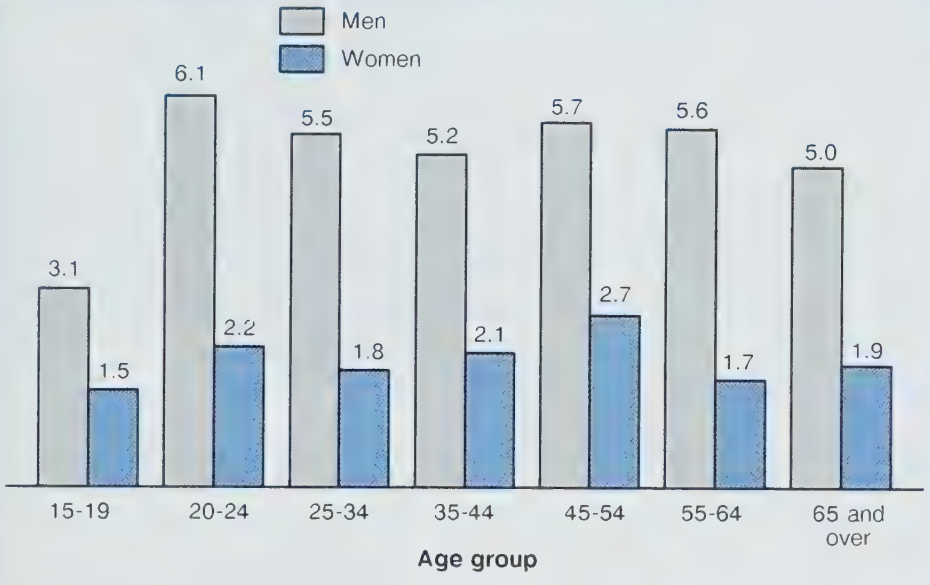
Men drink more frequently than women. While 15% of male current drinkers consumed alcohol at least four times a week, just 6% of female drinkers drank that often.

Men also consume greater quantities of alcohol than do women. Ten percent of male current drinkers had 15 or more drinks in the week before the survey; only 1% of female drinkers consumed that much.

Average weekly alcohol consumption peaks at different ages for men and women. In 1989, men aged 20-24 had more drinks per week than any other age group, averaging 6.1. For women, consumption was highest among those aged 45-54, who averaged 2.7 drinks per week.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

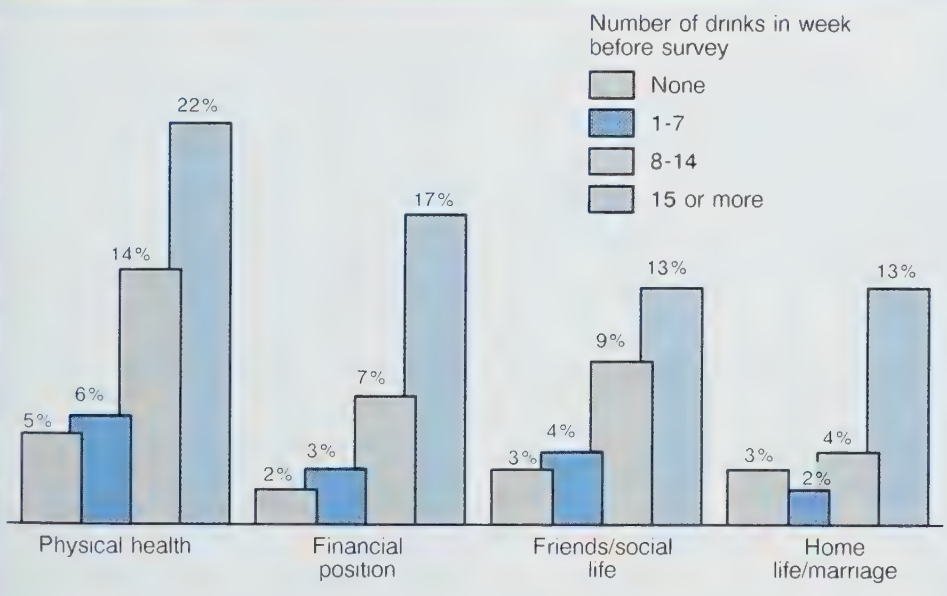
Average weekly number of drinks consumed by current drinkers, by age and sex, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Current drinkers reporting problems in last year caused by their drinking, by consumption in week before survey, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

High income/high consumption

In general, alcohol use is more common among high-income Canadians than among those in less affluent households. In 1989, 89% of adults in households with incomes of $40,000 or more were current drinkers, compared with 60% of those whose household income was less than $10,000.

Similarly, current drinkers in high-income households tend to consume more alcohol per week than do those in households with lower incomes. For example, average weekly consumption for current drinkers in households with incomes of $40,000 or more was 4.2 drinks, compared with 2.7 drinks for those in households with incomes below $10,000.

The higher weekly consumption of affluent drinkers reflects more frequent drinking. Whereas 50% of those in the highest income bracket reported that they usually drink once a week or more, the figure for those in the lowest income group was 23%.

However, when people in lower income groups do drink, they tend to consume more than those in other income groups. For instance, in 1989, current drinkers whose annual household income was less than $10,000 had an average of 3.3 drinks per occasion, compared with 2.7 drinks for those with household incomes of $40,000 or more.

Drinking and driving

One in five Canadian adults admits to drinking and driving. In 1989, 19% of current drinkers reported that sometime in the year before the survey they had driven within an hour of consuming two or more drinks.

Men were three times more likely than women to report drinking and driving. While 27% of current male drinkers had driven after drinking, just 9% of female drinkers had done so.

Younger people have a greater tendency than older people to drink and drive. Nearly a quarter (23%) of current drinkers aged 15-34 reported that they had driven within an hour of consuming two or more drinks; the figures were 20% for drinkers aged 35-54 and 7% for those aged 55 and over.

The more people drink, the more likely they are to report driving after drinking. For example, 43% of current drinkers who had 8 or more drinks during the week before the survey reported that they had driven after drinking. The corresponding proportions were 20% for drinkers who had consumed 1 to 7 drinks and 9% for those who did not drink that week.

In addition, a substantial minority of adults (10%) reported that sometime during the previous year they had been passengers in a vehicle with a drunk driver.



Drinking companions

Drinking in Canada is a social activity, usually carried out in the company of friends or family.

In 1989, about half (49%) of drinkers consumed alcohol with their friends a few times a month or more. As well, 25% of drinkers drank with their family at least a few times a month.

In general, drinking alone is rare. In 1989, just 6% of current drinkers reported that they drank alone once a week or more. On the other hand, 77% of current drinkers never drank alone.

Drinking alone, however, is relatively common among heavy drinkers. About a quarter (26%) of those who consumed 15 or more drinks in the week before the survey reported drinking by themselves once a week or more, compared with 5% of those who had 1 to 7 alcoholic beverages that week.

As well, older people are more likely than those in younger age groups to drink alone. Whereas 11% of current drinkers aged 55 and over drank by themselves at least once a week, the corresponding figure for those under age 35 was 3%.

Alcohol-related problems

Problems with health, finances, family, and friendship may be caused by one's own drinking or the drinking of others.

As might be expected, heavy drinking is associated with a relatively high incidence of such difficulties. For example, 22% of those who had 15 drinks or more in the week before the 1989 survey reported a problem with their health during the previous year; the comparable proportion among current drinkers who did not consume alcohol that week was 5%.

Similarly, 17% of heavy drinkers reported financial problems in the previous 12 months, compared with 2% of those who did not drink in the week before the survey. As well, 13% of heavy drinkers reported difficulties with friends or home life in the preceding year, whereas the figure was 3% for those who had not consumed alcohol in the previous week.

Problems caused by others' drinking are reported more frequently than those stemming from one's own consumption.

In 1989, 26% of Canadian adults reported that they had been disturbed during the past year by loud parties or by the behaviour of people drinking. Almost as many (21%) had been insulted by someone who had been drinking. Serious arguments due to someone drinking were reported by 17% of Canadians.

Seven percent of adults reported having been assaulted in the previous year by someone who had been drinking. Family problems related to alcohol affected 8% of adults, and 6% had lost friends.



PRESCRIPTION AND OVER-THE-COUNTER DRUGS

Prescription and over-the-counter drugs are helpful and often essential in dealing with health problems. However, many of these drugs have the potential for dependence, and as such, even their legitimate use may open the door to abuse. Also, some of these drugs are diverted to the illegal drug market, where abuse is almost certain to occur.

In 1989, the proportion of people who reported using prescription and over-the-counter drugs was relatively low. About one in twenty adult Canadians used painkillers or prescription opiates such as codeine, demerol, and morphine in the month before the survey, and even fewer took sleeping pills or tranquillizers. However, the use of both sleeping pills and tranquillizers was much higher among older than young people. Also, women were more likely than men to report using prescription and over-the-counter drugs.

Painkillers most common

Of the five classes of prescription and over-the-counter drugs studied in the 1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey, painkillers (prescribed opiates such as codeine, demerol, and morphine) were the most widely used. That year, 5.0% of adults aged 15 and over reported use during the 30 days before the survey.

Somewhat smaller proportions of the population reported having used sleeping pills (3.6%) or tranquillizers such as Valium (3.1%).

Reported use of anti-depressants and stimulants was even more limited. In 1989, 2.0% of adults had used anti-depressants in the month before the survey, while 0.9% had used diet pills or other stimulants.[1]

While the 1989 survey did not question respondents about multiple drug use, the 1985 Health Promotion Survey had found that many people used more than one kind of drug. For example, one-third (34%) of sleeping pill users also reported using tranquillizers, and 14% of tranquillizer users said they took sleeping pills.

Higher use among older people

The use of prescription and over-the-counter drugs varies at different ages. Elderly people are much more likely than younger ones to use sleeping pills. In fact, more than one in ten people aged 65 and over (11.1%) reported the use of sleeping pills in the month before the 1989 survey. This is at least double the rate of use by any other age group. For example, just under 5% of people aged 45-64 said that they had taken sleeping pills over the same period.

Tranquillizer use is highest at ages 55-64, although the rate is also quite high among elderly people. In 1989, 6.0% of 55-64-year-olds reported taking tranquillizers in the month before the survey, while the rate was 5.4% for those aged 65 and over. The proportion of 45-54-year-olds who had used these drugs over the same period was 5.0%. Rates were half this or less for younger people.

The use of painkillers did not vary as greatly by age. In 1989, about 6% of people aged 20-44 reported taking codeine, demerol, or morphine in the month before the survey. The rate was 4.9% for 15-19-year-olds and about 4% for those aged 45 and over.

. . . and among women

Regardless of age, women are more likely than men to use painkillers, sleeping pills, and tranquillizers.

In 1989, 5.7% of women reported taking codeine, demerol, or morphine in the month before the survey, while the proportion for men was 4.3%. At the same time, the proportion of women who had used sleeping pills was 4.6%, compared with 2.5% for men.

Women were more than twice as likely as men to report having taken tranquillizers in the 30 days before the survey: 4.3% compared with 1.8%.

Use varies by education and income

People with limited formal education are most likely to use sleeping pills and tranquillizers. For example, in 1989, 4.4% of adults with a secondary school education or less used sleeping pills in the month before the survey, while the proportion was just 2.5% for those with a postsecondary degree. Figures were almost the same for tranquillizer use.

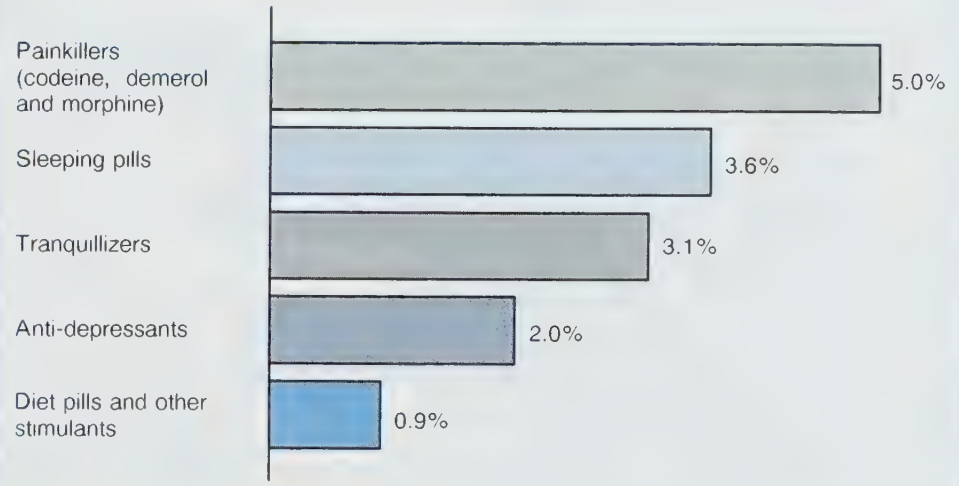
Tranquillizers down, sleeping pills up slightly

While trend data for Canada as a whole are lacking, Ontario figures indicate a relatively steep downturn in tranquillizer use. According to the Addiction Research Foundation, the proportion of Ontario men who reported using tranquillizers in the year before the survey dropped from 8.7% in 1977 to 3.5% in 1987. Over the same period, rates for women fell from 15.9% to 9.6%.

On the other hand, reported sleeping pill use in Ontario was somewhat higher in 1987 than at the end of the 1970s. In 1987, 7.1% of men had taken sleeping pills in the preceding year, compared with 6.0% in 1977. Comparable figures for women were 10.8% in 1987, up from the 9.3% reported 10 years earlier.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Population aged 15 and over reporting prescription and over-the-counter drug use in month before survey, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

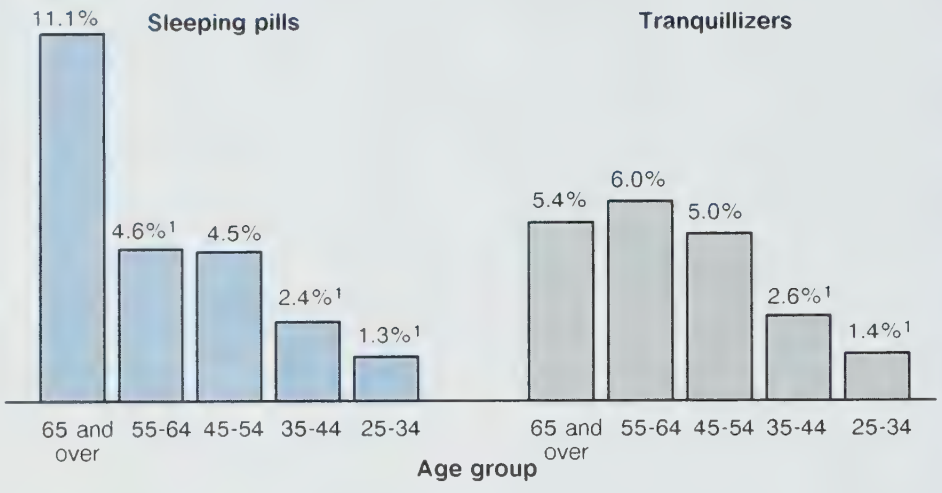
These differences may, in part, be due to the ages of people with different educational qualifications. Overall, older people, whose use of both sleeping pills and tranquillizers is relatively high, also tend to have lower levels of schooling than younger people.

Given the strong correlation between education and income, it is not surprising that people with relatively low incomes are also most likely to use sleeping pills or tranquillizers. In 1989, 8.9% of people with an annual income below $10,000 reported taking sleeping pills in the month before the survey, compared with 2.0% of those having an income of $40,000 or more. Comparable figures for tranquilizers were 6.8% and 1.7%, respectively.

[1] The relatively small populations of users of anti-depressants and diet pills and other stimulants inhibits detailed descriptions of user characteristics.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

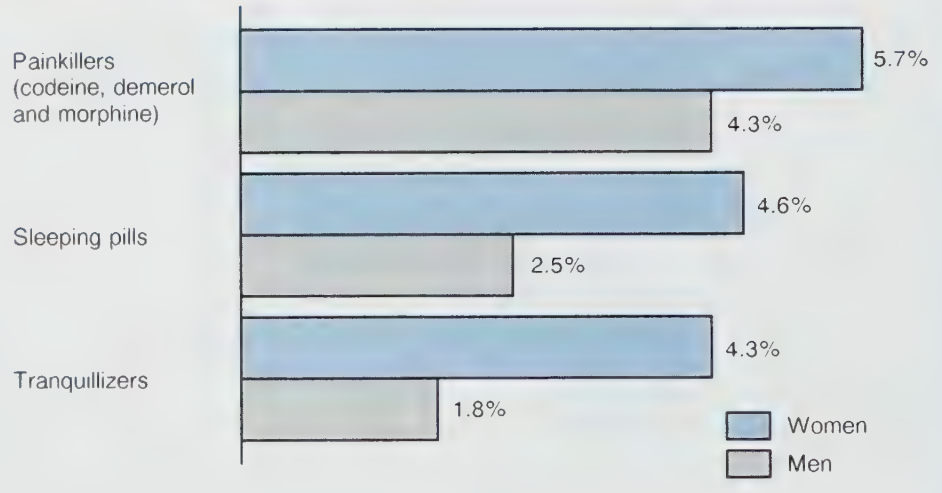
Population aged 15 and over reporting sleeping pill and tranquillizer use in month before survey, by age, 1989



[1] High sampling variability.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Population aged 15 and over reporting prescription and over-the-counter drug use in month before survey, by sex, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*



ILLICIT DRUGS

A small minority of Canadians use illicit drugs, and an even smaller proportion use them regularly. However, while some drug users do not suffer lasting consequences, others experience severe problems. These range from the various legal ramifications for possession or supply of illicit substances to serious financial difficulties, which may lead to criminal activities. As well, long-term physical or mental health problems may result from abuse, and death may occur from overdose of certain illicit drugs.

According to various surveys conducted over the last decade, cannabis (marijuana, hashish, and hashish oil) is the most widely used illicit drug, although its use has declined. Young adults, particularly men, are more likely than older people to be drug users. Also, men are more likely than women to use cannabis on a regular basis. For most people, however, drug use is not a lifetime habit, but one that is abandoned later in life.

Cannabis most common

According to the 1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey, 6.5% of people aged 15 and over were considered current users of cannabis, having stated that they had used the drug at least once in the year before the survey.

Regular use of this drug is even less common. In fact, fewer than half of current cannabis users reported using it regularly. In 1989, 22.4% of people who had used cannabis in the year before the survey reported use at least once a week. A further 24.8% reported use one to three times a month.

The proportion of adults who reported being current users of potentially more dangerous illicit drugs was much lower than for cannabis. In 1989, 1.4% of people aged 15 and over were current users of cocaine or crack, and fewer than half of one percent reported using LSD, speed, or heroin.[2]

Use declining

Few national trend data are available about illicit drug use. However, indications are that cannabis use declined over the first half of the 1980s and has been relatively

[2] The relatively small population of cocaine and LSD users inhibits detailed descriptions of user characteristics. However, when possible, breakdowns are provided.

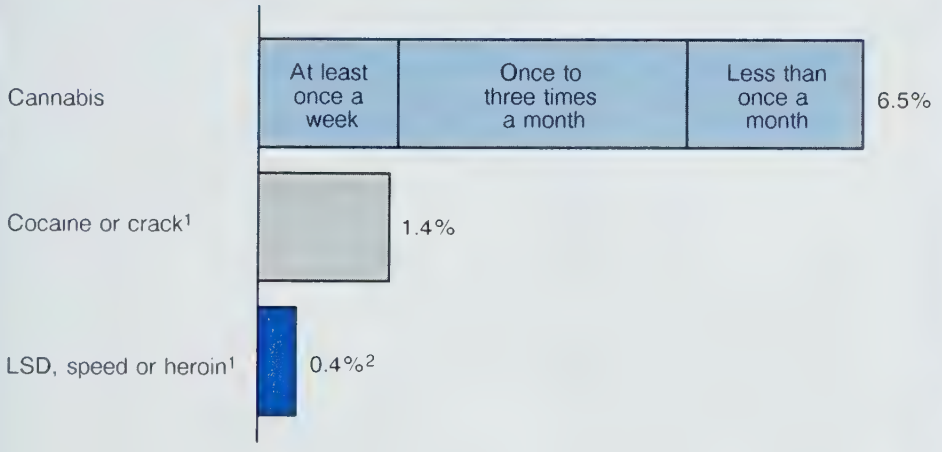
stable since then. In 1989, 6% of people aged 18 and over reported using cannabis in the year before being surveyed, almost the same proportion as in 1985 (5%). These figures were about half the 1980 level of 12%.

Also, data from studies conducted in Ontario indicate a substantial decrease in the use of cannabis by young people. According to the Addiction Research Foundation, in 1989, 14% of Ontario students in Grades 7, 9, 11, and 13 reported using cannabis in the year before the survey. This was less than half the 32% who reported use in 1979.

The Ontario student study also indicates a drop in cocaine use over the last decade. For example, 2.7% of the students reported using cocaine in the year before the 1989 survey, down from 5.1% reported in the 1979 survey. Questions on the use of crack were asked for the first time in 1987: reported use was around 1% in both 1987 and 1989.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

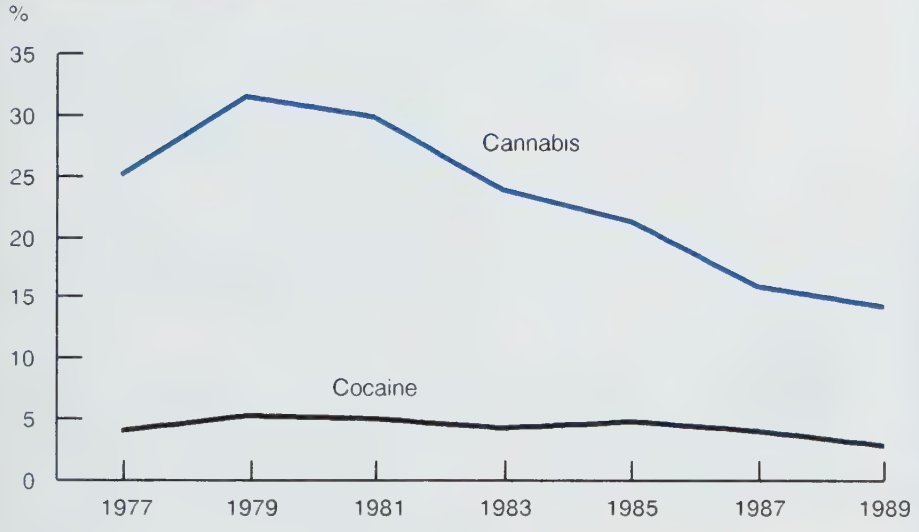
Population aged 15 and over reporting illicit drug use in year before survey, 1989



[1] Sample too small to allow breakdown by frequency of use.
[2] High sampling variability.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ontario students in Grades 7, 9, 11 and 13 reporting cannabis and cocaine use in year before survey, 1977-1989



Source: Addiction Research Foundation, *The Ontario Student Drug Use Survey: Trends Between 1977-1989,* by Reginald G. Smart and Edward M. Adlaf.

Provincial differences

The extent of drug use varies considerably from province to province. Overall, British Columbia residents are most likely to use illicit substances. In 1989, almost one in ten (9.6%) adults living in British Columbia reported using cannabis in the year before the survey. The rate in Nova Scotia was also quite high, where 7.4% of the population were current cannabis users.

The proportion of current cannabis users equalled the national average (6.5%) in both Quebec and Alberta, while rates were somewhat lower in Ontario and New Brunswick.

Marijuana and other drugs

Marijuana use appears to be strongly related to the use of both tobacco and alcohol. For instance, according to a 1985 Gallup Poll conducted for Health and Welfare Canada, marijuana users were twice as likely as non-users to smoke cigarettes daily (66% compared with 32%). Also, while 98% of marijuana users drank alcohol on a monthly basis, the proportion was 64% for non-users.



Newfoundland residents were least likely to report using cannabis in the year before the 1989 survey (4.5%). Levels of use were only slightly higher than this in Prince Edward Island, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba.

British Columbia residents were also most likely to use other drugs, with 7.2% having used cocaine or crack at some point in their lives and 6.1% reporting the use of LSD, speed, or heroin. Quebec had the second highest proportion of people who had ever used cocaine (4.1%); the rate in Alberta was only slightly lower (3.7%). Also, Alberta residents reported the second highest level of LSD, speed, or heroin use (5.5%).

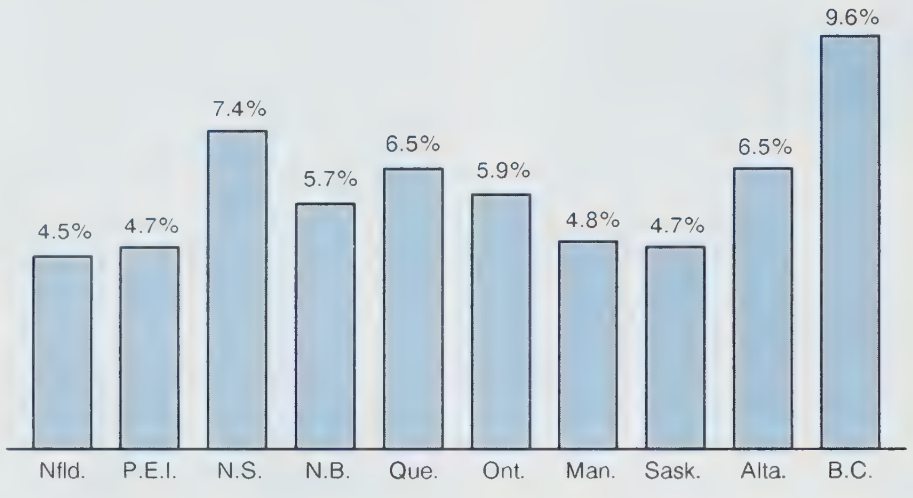
Use highest among young people

Young adults are more likely than older people to use illicit drugs. For instance, almost one in five (18.4%) 20-24-year-olds had used cannabis during the 12 months preceding the 1989 survey, as had 12.3% of people aged 15-19 and 10.5% of those aged 25-34. The proportion was considerably lower at ages 35-54, and use was virtually non-existent among those aged 55 and over.

The proportion of people who had used cocaine or crack in the year before the survey was highest at ages 25-34 (3.3%) and 20-24 (3.1%). The level of current cocaine use among 15-19-year-olds was 1.9%, while almost no one 35 and over reported being a current user.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

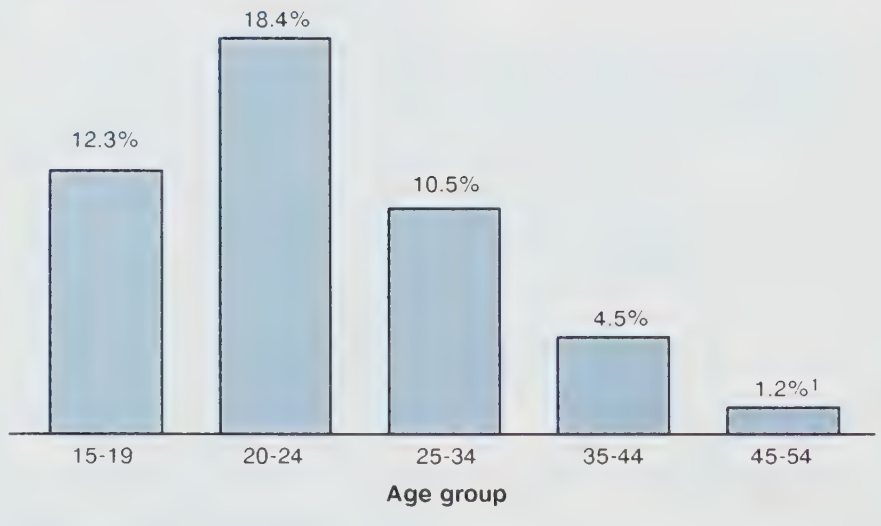
Population aged 15 and over reporting cannabis use in year before survey, by province, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Population aged 15 and over reporting cannabis use in year before survey, by age, 1989



[1] High sampling variability.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report.*

Men more likely users

At all ages, men are more likely than women to be current users of illicit drugs. For example, men were more than twice as likely as women to have used cannabis in the year before the 1989 survey. That year, 8.9% of men had used cannabis, compared with 4.1% of women.

Men are also far more likely than women to use cannabis at least once a week. In 1989, 25.6% of current male users reported using cannabis at least once a week, compared with 15.8% of women.

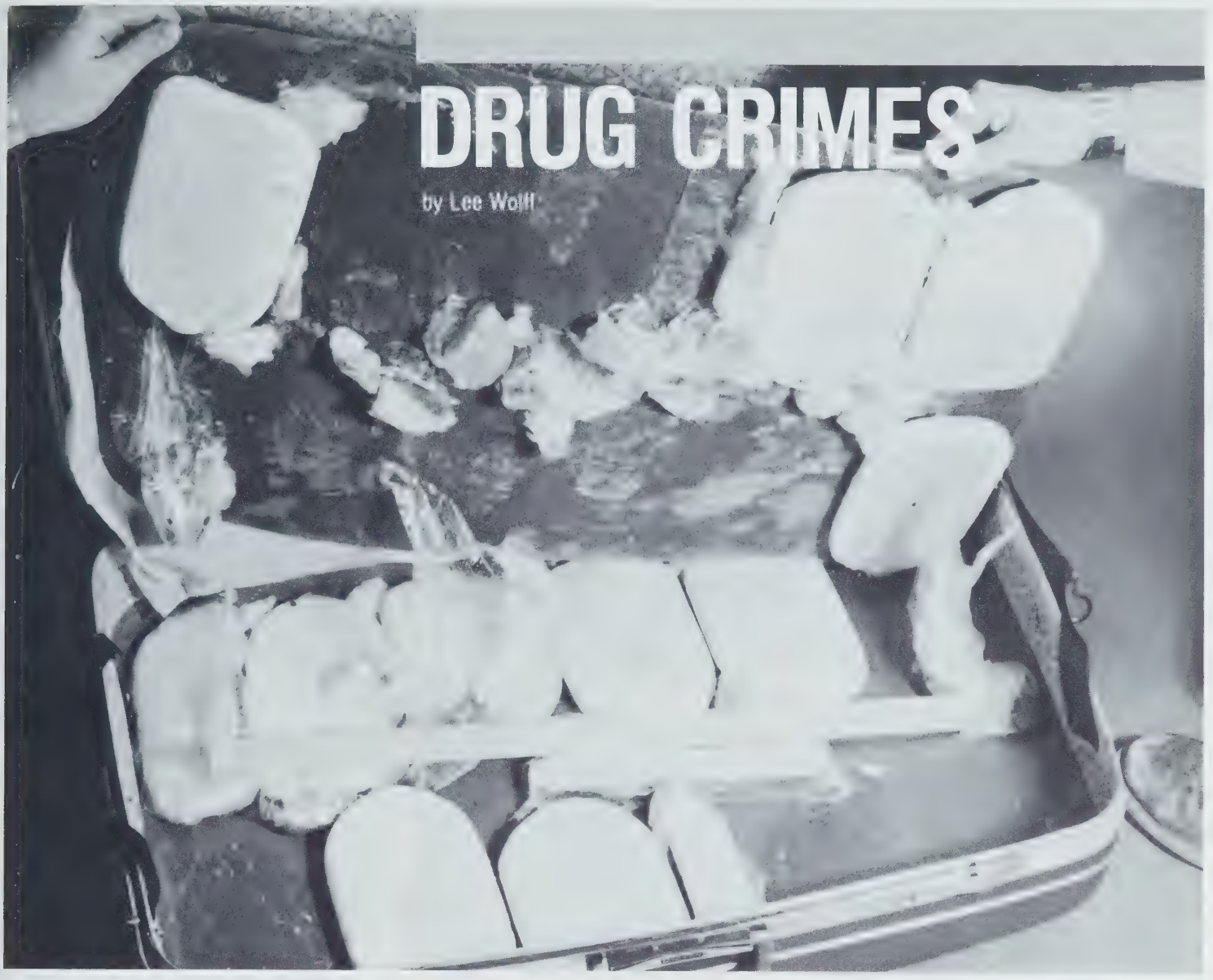
Also, in 1989, 2.0% of men reported having used cocaine or crack in the 12 months before the survey, compared with just 0.8% of women.

Drug use abandoned by many

The vast majority of people who use illicit drugs do not continue using them throughout their lives. One indication of this is the relatively high proportions of adults who reported having used illicit drugs at some point, compared with the proportion who were still using them. For example, in 1989, almost one-quarter (23.2%) of people aged 15 and over reported ever having used cannabis, but just 6.5% were current users. Corresponding proportions for cocaine or crack were 3.5% and 1.4%. Similarly, the rate for those who reported having used LSD, speed, or heroin at some point in their lives was 4.1%, compared with 0.4% of adults who were current users.

Marc Eliany *is the National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey Project Manager, and a senior analyst with the Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada.*

- More information on this topic is available in the *1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey: Highlights Report, Alcohol in Canada*, and *Licit and Illicit Drugs*, Health and Welfare Canada.



DRUG CRIMES

by Lee Wolff

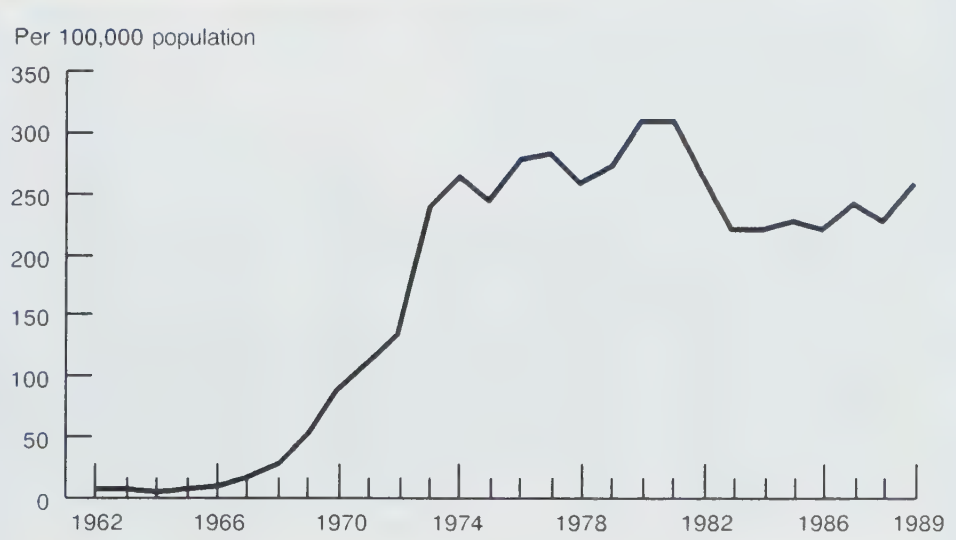
Significant shifts are occurring in the nature of drug crimes. Supply offences, in particular trafficking, account for an increasing proportion of drug crimes, while possession offences make up a declining majority. Also, cocaine-related drug crimes are much more prevalent than they were a decade ago, while the proportion of drug crimes involving cannabis is considerably lower. These shifts do not necessarily reflect trends in drug use, but rather changes in the focus of enforcement toward more serious offences and more dangerous drugs.

Higher rates

Drug crimes have historically accounted for fewer than 3% of all offences reported by the police. While this proportion has remained relatively steady over the years, the number of drug crimes per 100,000 people is now considerably higher than it was at the beginning of the 1960s. In 1989, drug crimes numbered 68,000 or 259 per

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Drug crime rate, 1962-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

100,000 people. By contrast, the rate in 1962 was just 5 per 100,000 people.

The increase in drug crime rates, however, has not been consistent over the past three decades. Rates rose sharply from the mid-1960s until the early 1980s. In 1980 and 1981, drug crime was at its peak, with rates of 309 per 100,000 people. A sharp drop occurred in the following two years, but since then, drug crime rates have been rising slowly.

Provincial differences

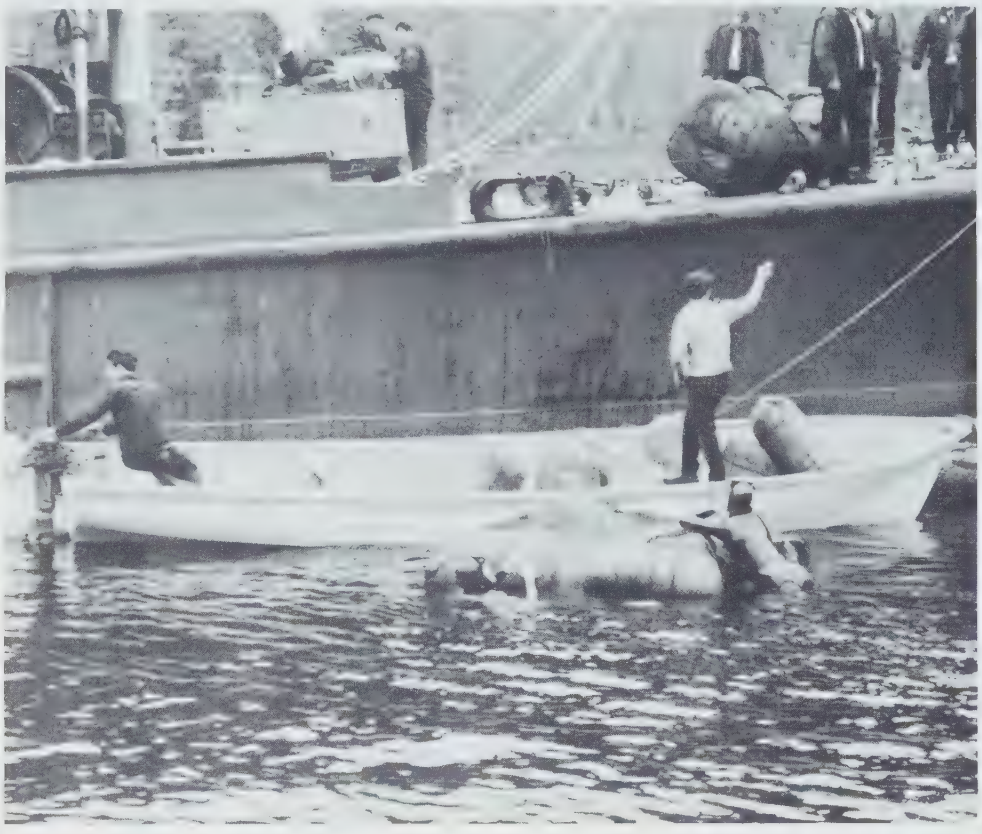
Drug crime rates are generally higher in the provinces west of Quebec than in the eastern provinces. While these rates may, in some cases, be an indication of drug use, they also reflect jurisdictional differences in the allocation of drug enforcement resources.

British Columbia had, by far, the highest rate of any province in 1989, at 443 drug crimes per 100,000 people. Rates were also well above the national level in Manitoba, Ontario, and Alberta.

In contrast, rates were exceptionally low in Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and Quebec, at about 140 drug crimes per 100,000 people.

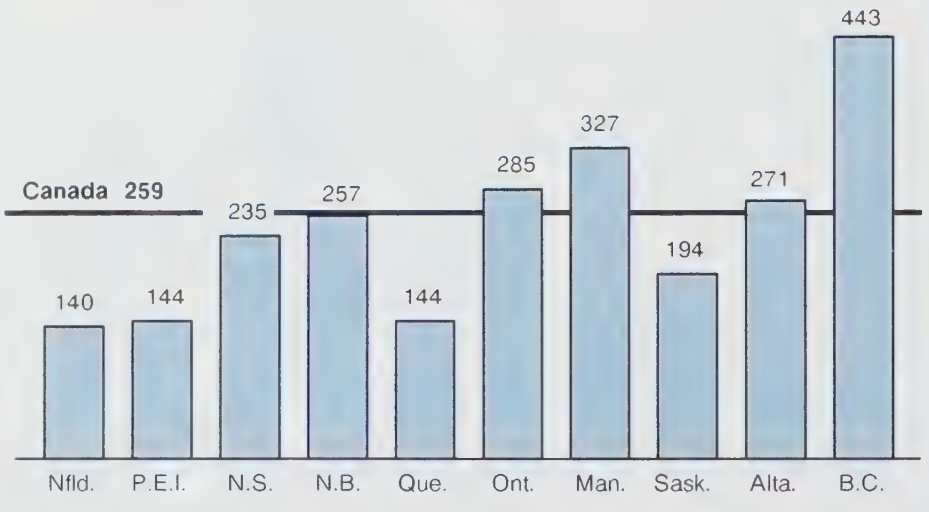
Supply - a growing proportion

Supply offences (trafficking, importation, and cultivation) now account for a much larger proportion of drug crimes than they did in the past. Overall, they made up 36% of drug crimes in 1989, more than double



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Drug crime rates, by province, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Domestic marijuana increasing

Cultivation offences, although still a small proportion of overall drug crimes, doubled in number during the late 1980s. In 1989, there were 1,390 such offences, compared with 680 in 1986.

The RCMP estimates that the proportion of domestic marijuana on the market also doubled over roughly the same period. In 1988, an estimated 20% of the market share was produced in Canada, compared with 10% in 1986. This increase is largely attributed to advancements in hydroponic and other sophisticated indoor cultivation techniques, which make it possible to grow crops year round in any part of the country.

Drug crime statistics

The Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics collects drug crime statistics through the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey, which began in 1962. In 1977, the survey was expanded to measure drug crime by offence type. The UCR Survey classifies each offence by the most serious violation within a criminal incident. This means that if, for example, a violent crime and a drug crime are committed within the same incident, the incident is classified as a violent offence and the drug offence is not counted. Similarly, if a trafficking offence and a possession offence occur within the same incident, the possession offence is not counted.

In the UCR Survey, drug crime includes all offences listed under the Narcotic Control Act and the Food and Drugs Act. Related offences of conspiracy, which fall under the Criminal Code, are not included.

the proportion of 17% in 1977. This increase was due mostly to the rise of trafficking offences, which accounted for 32% of drug crimes in 1989, compared with 15% in 1977. At the same time, importation and cultivation offences together rose to around 4% of all drug crimes in 1989, from just under 2% in 1977.

Despite the large increases in supply offences, most drug crimes are still for possession. In 1989, possession offences accounted for 64% of drug crimes. This, however, was down considerably from 83% in 1977.

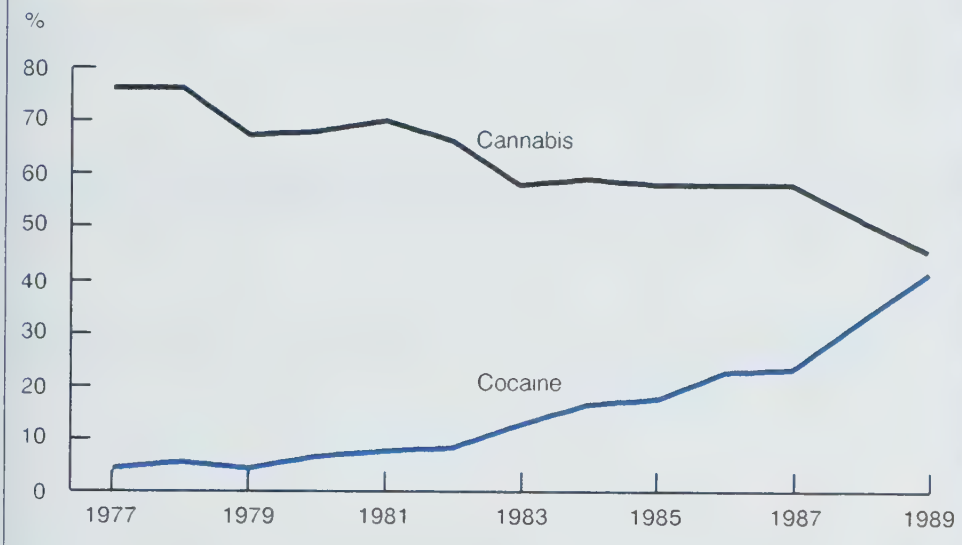
Cocaine crime increasing

Cocaine-related offences have increased substantially as a proportion of all drug crimes during the last decade. In 1989, trafficking in cocaine comprised 41% of all trafficking offences, up sharply from just 4% in 1977. Similarly, 34% of importation offences involved cocaine in 1989, compared with 18% in 1977. Cocaine possession, although still relatively uncommon, accounted for 16% of all possession offences in 1989; the proportion was only 1% in 1977.

Over the same period, the proportion of crimes involving cannabis declined sharply. Nonetheless, such offences still made up the majority of all drug crimes in 1989. That year, 45% of trafficking offences involved cannabis, down from 76% in 1977. Likewise, cannabis importation dropped to 43% from 54%. Cannabis possession accounted for 67% of possession offences in 1989, compared with 93% in 1977.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

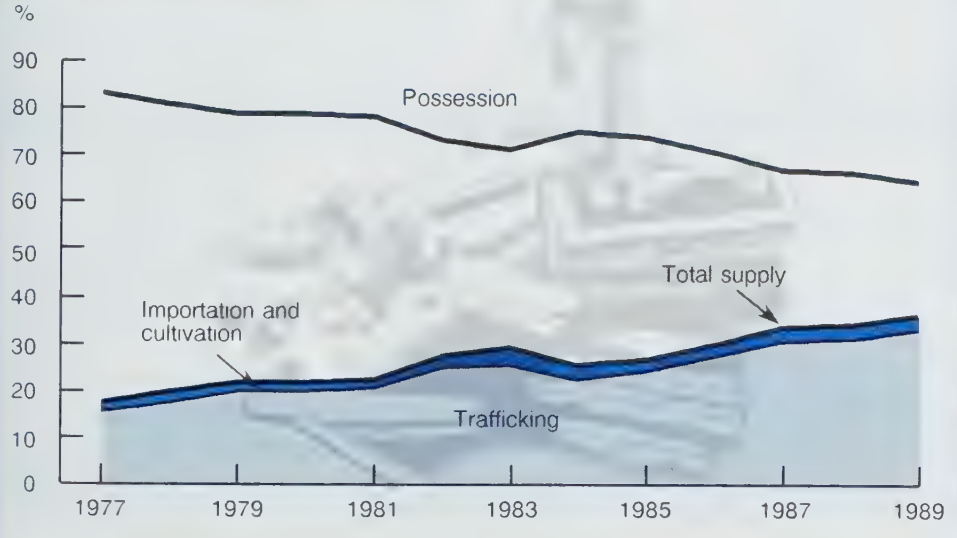
Cocaine and cannabis as a proportion of trafficking offences, 1977-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Possession and supply offences as a proportion of drug crimes, 1977-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Most illicit drugs imported

Most cultivated substances, such as cannabis, coca, and opium, are produced in other countries and smuggled into Canada. According to the RCMP, Colombia was Canada's primary cocaine supplier in 1988, accounting for an estimated 60% of the market. Other principal source countries were Peru (20%) and Bolivia (15%).

The heroin that reaches Canada is produced in the developing countries of Asia. In 1988, Myanmar (formerly Burma), Laos, and Thailand supplied an estimated 78% of Canada's illicit heroin; the remainder originated in Iran, Afghanistan, and Pakistan.

Unlike cocaine and heroin, a significant share of the cannabis derivatives (marijuana, hashish, and hashish oil) on the Canadian market is produced domestically. While Jamaica, Southeast Asia, Colombia, and Mexico supplied most of the marijuana in 1988 (estimated at 70%), an estimated 20% was produced in Canada.

India and Southwest Asia supplied over one-half (55%) of the hashish market in 1988. Lebanon, the other principal source country, accounted for an estimated 40%. Almost all (90%) liquid hashish came from Jamaica, although 10% was produced domestically.

Lee Wolff *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1990

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[1]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6
1989	20,141	13,503	12,486	1,018	67.0	7.5	62.0
1990	20,430	13,681	12,572	1,109	67.0	8.1	61.5

[1] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2	26,584.0
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4
Immigration[1]	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024	207,067
Emigration[1]	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314	37,915
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1[p]	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572
- goods sector (000s)	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626
- services sector (000s)	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946
Total unemployment (000s)	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109
Unemployment rate (%)	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1
Part-time employment (%)	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4
Women's participation rate (%)	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	*
% of families with low income	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	9.6	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.7[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	836.6[p]	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.8	5.6	5.5	5.3	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	*	*
- women	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	*	*
- women	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	*	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.0	5.8	5.8	5.8	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	692	714	749	808	856	898	950	*
- property	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,514	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1989 $000,000)	142,862.8	143,725.3	148,347.9	152,023.5	154,460.2	157,281.5	161,734.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.2	55.6	55.8	56.9	56.3	56.5	56.2	*
- as a % of GDP	27.3	26.2	26.1	26.3	25.6	24.8	24.8	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.0	+4.4	+3.0	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0	4.8
Urban housing starts	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	*

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move...



...make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!



SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price ($ Can.) In Canada	Price ($ Can.) Elsewhere
82-602	Highlights: Disabled Persons in Canada	$25.00	$30.00
82-615	Barriers Confronting Seniors with Disabilities in Canada	$35.00	United States: $42.00 US Other countries: $49.00 US
85-205	Canadian Crime Statistics	$37.00	$44.00
98-131	Canada - A Linguistic Profile	$10.00	$11.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Business

Cat. No. 13-568 - Fixed Capital Flows and Stocks, Historical ($67/US$80/US$94)

Cat. No. 15-512 - Gross Domestic Product by Industry, 1961-1985 ($45/US$54/US$63)

General

Cat. No. 11-403E - Canada: A Portrait ($21.95/US$29.95/US$34.95)

Cat. No. 87-512 - Television ($37/US$44/US$52)

Cat. No. 89-519 - A Portrait of Seniors in Canada ($43/US$48/US$56)

Cat. No. 89-520 - A Portrait of Children in Canada ($40/US$48/US$56)

Cat. No. 91-534E - Sixty Years of Marriage in Canada ($38/US$52/US$53)



ROCK SOLID INFORMATION

Get a focus on Canada's markets and business opportunities with **the** source of reliable information...Statistics Canada and its unequaled family of outstanding publications and services.

Relying on Statistics Canada means you're building your decisions on hard facts assembled by a professional organization with a world-wide reputation for scrupulous accuracy and complete reliability.

Join the thousands of corporations and individuals who base their Canadian business decisions on Statistics Canada publications. Year after year.

For more information on Statistics Canada's extensive range of publications and information services, please call toll-free 1-800-267-6677.

At Statistics Canada, we provide information you can build on.

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

Publications

11
-008

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E

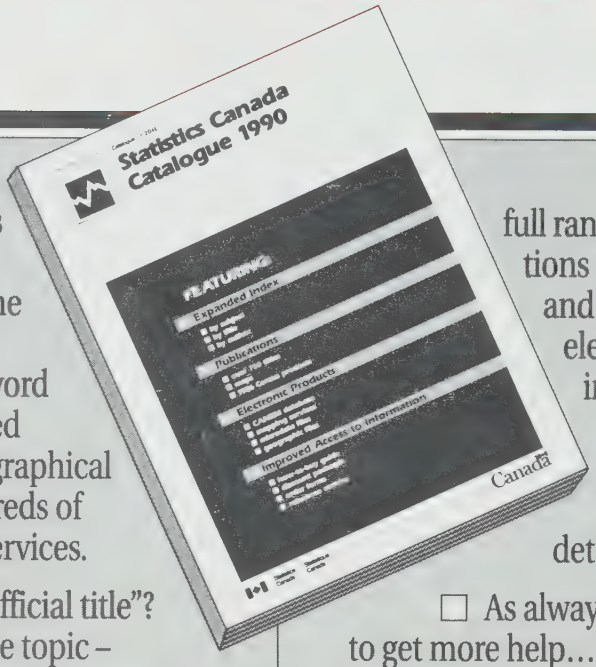


☐ SURGERY AMONG ELDERLY PEOPLE ☐ MARRIAGE AND TAXES

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

PICK A TOPIC... ANY TOPIC



Now a redesigned **Statistics Canada Catalogue** will simplify your search for the most up-to-date or historic facts. An expanded and improved keyword index, cross-referencing, increased subject detail and listings by geographical area provide easy access to hundreds of Statistics Canada products and services.

☐ Know the topic but not the "official title"? No matter how wide or narrow the topic – or how little you know about it – you'll appreciate how quickly the cross-referencing leads you to the right source.

☐ You'll find sources of key statistics like consumer price indexes, import/export figures, or population characteristics down to the village level. From the most popular topics of the day like employment, income, trade and education to more detailed research studies like mineral products shipped from Canadian ports or Caribbean immigrants in urban areas... you'll find it all.

☐ This expanded edition of the **Statistics Canada Catalogue** includes descriptions of our full range of services – from publications and maps to microdata files and diskettes. And, many of our electronic product listings include the name and phone number of a contact within Statistics Canada giving you a direct line to more detailed information.

☐ As always, you'll find sections on how to get more help... on-line search techniques in libraries... discount and order information... and the locations of our Reference Centres. You'll especially appreciate that this year's **Catalogue** is bound in a durable, plasticized cover to withstand intensive use.

☐ For ease and completeness in your information search get the **Statistics Canada Catalogue** (cat. # 11-204E) for $13.95 in Canada, US$17 in the U.S. and US$20 in other countries. To order your copy write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or you can FAX your order to (613) 951-1584. For faster service using VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free:

1-800-267-6677.

CANADIAN
SOCIAL TRENDS



SURGERY AMONG ELDERLY PEOPLE MARRIAGE AND TAXES

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada
Canada

Cover: ***Sunnyside, Toronto*** (1923) oil on canvas, 91.8 x 99.8cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Born in England, **Mary Evelyn Wrinch** (1878-1969) immigrated to Toronto in 1885. A landscape painter and printmaker, she studied at the Central Ontario School of Art, Toronto and the Grosvenor Life School, London. Miss Wrinch also took up studies in miniature painting in London and New York.



CONTENTS

No. 21 - SUMMER 1991

Canada's Children 2
by Alain Crégheur and Mary Sue Devereaux

Early Childhood Mortality, 1926-1986 6
by Margaret King, John Gartrell and Frank Trovato

Surgery Among Elderly People 11
by Mary Beth Maclean and Jillian Oderkirk

Married and Unmarried Couples: The Tax Question 15
by Richard J. Morrison and Jillian Oderkirk

Urbanization in Canada 22
by Brian Biggs and Ray Bollman

Cumulative Index, Summer 1986-Spring 1991 29

Social Indicators 31

LIBRARY
JUN 19 1991
University of Toronto

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor-in-Chief	Craig McKie
Editors	Mary Anne Burke Jo-Anne B. Parliament
Assistant Editors	Pierre Gauthier Jillian Oderkirk
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Marketing Co-ordinator	Alex Solis
Writer/Researcher	Katherine Nessner

Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Ove Design
Illustrations and Photos	Health and Welfare Canada; G & G Design, Masterfile; Photo Centre, SSC
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor

Acknowledgements K. Bishop, C. Bronson, K. Dietrich, S. Gribble, A. Haman, M. Hickey, S. Jacklin, A. Jones, R. McDonald, J. Moreau, N. Nault, C. Prévost, C. Richard, M.P. Robert, M. Saint-Laurent, L. Verdon, S. Vienotte

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Industry, Science and Technology. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1991, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor-in-Chief, **Canadian Social Trends**, 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the Minister of Supply and Services Canada. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

CANADA'S CHILDREN

by Alain Crégheur and Mary Sue Devereaux



Although their parents might not agree, children constitute a silent minority in the Canadian population — silent because they are neither voters nor taxpayers who can command attention from politicians and policy-makers. Yet many children are confronting serious problems, and all are affected by social change.

By world standards, of course, Canadian children are among the fortunate few. Child mortality rates are low and have fallen significantly in the past decade. Virtually all children attend school, and most live in homes with an array of modern conveniences and entertainment equipment.

On the other hand, substantial numbers of children, particularly those in lone-parent families headed by women, are in a low-income situation. Limited finances can have implications for their health, educational attainment, and emotional well-being.

A large minority

As of 1990, Canadian boys and girls under age 15 numbered some 5.6 million. This was a slight increase from 1986, when the total had been 5.4 million.

Even so, the 1990 figure marked a steep decline from 6.4 million in 1971. As well, projections indicate that by 2001, the number of children in Canada will not have changed substantially, remaining stable at around 5.5 million.[1]

Children account for a declining proportion of all Canadians. In 1990, they made up 21% of the total population, down sharply from 30% in 1971. Moreover, it is projected that by 2001, children's share of the population will have fallen to 19%.

Death rates falling

By many measures, Canadian children are in a favourable situation. For instance, child mortality rates are low and have dropped substantially during the 1980s.

Of all Canadian children, infants face the greatest risk of death. In 1988, for every 100,000 boys under age 1, there were about 800 deaths, and for girls, 630 deaths. However, in 1981, the comparable figures had been almost 1,200 deaths for boys and more than 900 for girls.

While these rates may seem high, they are among the lowest in the world. For example, in some African countries such as Mozambique, Angola, and Sierra Leone, 1988 infant mortality exceeded 15,000 per 100,000 children under age 1.

Mortality rates among older Canadian children are much lower than among infants. In fact, death rates at ages 1-14 were all under 50 per 100,000 in 1988. As well, these rates were down from levels in the early 1980s.

[1] This is a medium-growth projection which incorporates the most recent course of events. It assumes a fertility rate of 1.67 births per woman by 2011 and average annual immigration of around 200,000.

Causes of death among children vary at different ages. For infants, the two leading causes in 1988 were perinatal conditions and congenital anomalies such as spina bifida, Down's syndrome, and fetal alcohol syndrome. Together, perinatal conditions and congenital anomalies accounted for seven out of ten infant deaths.

For older children, accidents were the main cause of death in 1988. Congenital anomalies were the second leading cause at ages 1-4, while at ages 5-14, cancer ranked second.

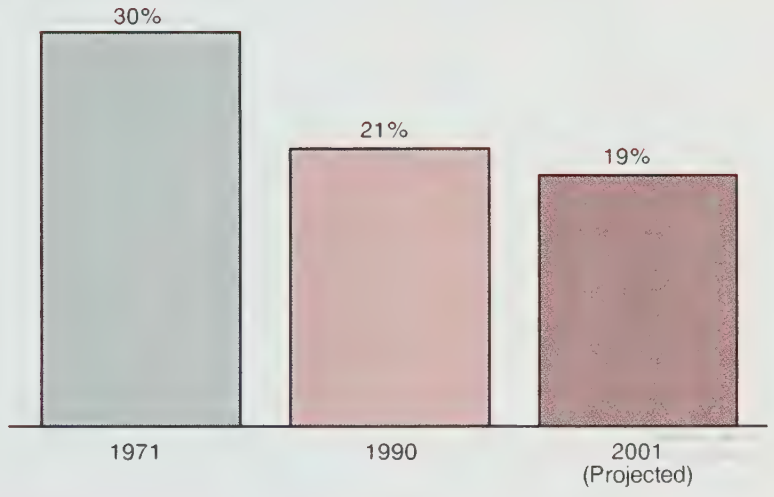
At school

Another positive aspect of the lives of Canadian children is their access to education. In fact, compulsory education laws and the wide availability of kindergarten mean that virtually all children aged 5-14 attend school. As well, by 1988, 46% of children aged 4 were enrolled, up from 28% in 1977.

The majority of children are learning the country's two official languages. In Canada outside Quebec, the proportion

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

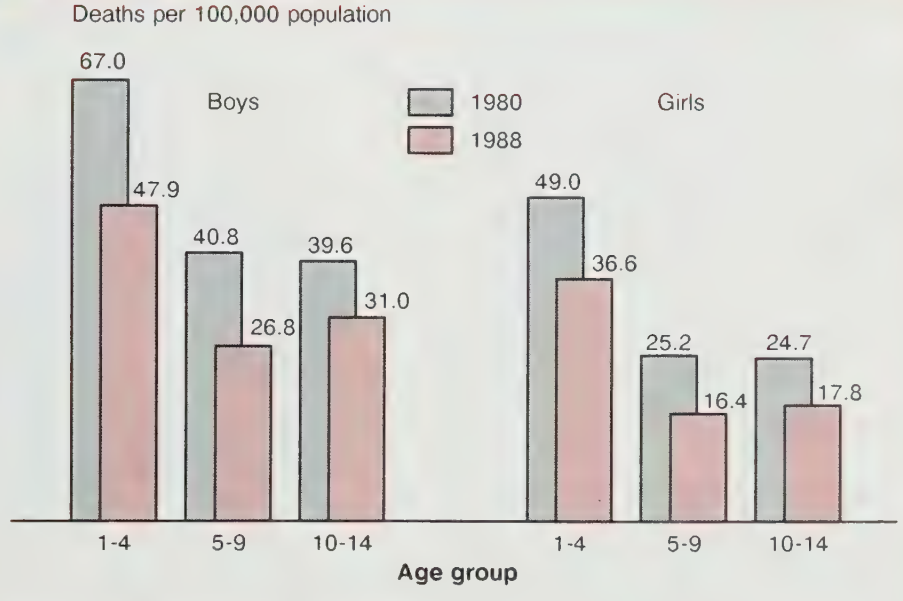
Children as a percentage of total population, 1971-2001



Source: Statistics Canada, 1971 Census of Canada and Catalogues 91-210 and 91-520.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Mortality rates for children aged 1-14, by age and sex, 1980 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003s and 84-206.

of pupils learning French as a second language rose from 54% in 1983 to 62% in 1988. Figures for Quebec pupils learning English are not comparable, as English instruction does not begin until Grade 4. But from then until the end of high school, all Quebec pupils are enrolled in classes to learn English.

At home

The homes of most Canadian children contain a number of features designed for enjoyment or to enhance convenience and safety.

In 1989, almost every Canadian child (98%) lived in a household equipped with a colour television set. Around three-quarters (76%) of children could tape programs and watch movies on videocassette recorders, and 70% of children were able to watch programs brought to their homes by cable television.

Television viewing, in fact, accounts for a substantial segment of children's leisure. Nonetheless, they actually spend less time watching TV than do adults. In 1989, children aged 2-11 watched television an average of 20.3 hours a week, compared with 23.4 hours for adults aged 18 and over.

Computers are less common, but by 1988, 20% of Canadian children were in households that had a home computer.

Microwave cooking facilitates meal preparation in the majority of households with children. In 1989, 75% of children lived in homes equipped with a microwave oven.

More in lone-parent families

The proportion of children who live in lone-parent families is growing. In 1986, 13% of all children were in lone-parent families, up from 9% in 1976. By contrast, 85% of children were in husband-wife families in 1986, a decline from 89% in 1976. A small proportion, just 2%, were living with relatives other than their parents and/or non-relatives in 1986. This percentage was unchanged from 1976.

As well, in recent years, custody awards arising from divorces have involved an annual total of around 50,000 children. In 1988, custody of 50,200 children was granted after their parents had divorced.

Parents at work

The majority of parents, even those who are partners in husband-wife families, have jobs outside the home. Moreover, the percentage of children with working parents rose substantially throughout the 1980s.

In 1988, both parents of 64% of children in husband-wife families were employed, compared with 51% in 1981. Furthermore, the proportion of children with both parents working full-time year-round rose from 20% in 1981 to 29% in 1988.

Children in lone-parent families were also more likely to have that parent employed in 1988 than in 1981. By 1988, the lone parent of 69% of all children in such families was working, compared with 66% in 1981. However, only about half of these jobs were full-time.

The situation of children with working parents is affected by the availability of day care. In 1989, there were around 7,000 day care centres in Canada with just over 298,000 spaces. These spaces could accommodate only 14% of children potentially in need of some form of care.

Low income

A considerable number of Canadian children live in families that are below the official low-income cut-offs. Such families spend at least 58.5% of their income on food, shelter, and clothing.

In 1988, 15.4% of all children were in low-income families, roughly the same proportion as in 1981 (15.6%). However, during the recession in the early 1980s, the incidence of low income among Canadian children had risen to 20%.[2]

Children are more likely than people aged 16-64 to be in low-income situations. In 1988, the proportion of 16-64-year-olds below the official low-income cut-offs was 11.7%, almost the same level as in 1981 (11.8%).

On the other hand, children are somewhat less likely than people aged 65 and over to be in straitened circumstances. In 1988, 17.2% of the elderly were classified as low-income, about two percentage points above the level for children. But since 1981, the income situation of the elderly has improved substantially, while that of children has scarcely changed. In 1981, 26.3% of elderly people were below the low-income cut-offs, compared with 15.6% of children.

Low income and lone-parent families

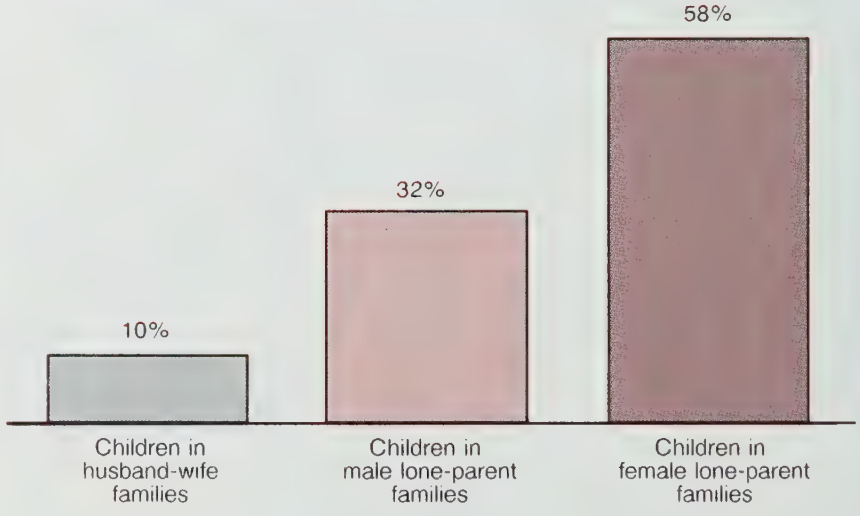
By far, the incidence of low income among children is highest in families headed by a female lone parent. In 1988, 58% of children in female-headed lone-parent families were in a low-income situation. This figure, however, was unchanged from 1981. The incidence of low income is not as high among children in families headed by a male lone parent. In 1988, 32% of children in male-headed lone-parent families were in the low-income category. Nonetheless, this was up substantially from 22% in 1981.

Low income is much less prevalent among children in husband-wife families. In 1988, 10% of these children were in a low-income situation, a slight drop from 11% in 1981.

[2] The proportion of children below the low-income cut-offs refers to the 0-15 age group; low-income data by family type refer to children aged 0-14.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Incidence of low income among children, by family type, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division.



Wide provincial variations

The incidence of low income among children varies widely in different provinces. The national level for low-income children in 1988 (15.4%) was strongly affected by the largest province, Ontario, where the figure was just 11.9%. In fact, the incidence of low income among children was below the national level in just three other provinces: Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and British Columbia.

By contrast, low income among children was most prevalent in Saskatchewan, where 22.6% were below the cut-offs in 1988. Rates were also high in Newfoundland, Manitoba, and New Brunswick, while proportions in Quebec and Alberta were closer to the national average.

Conclusion

In dealing with summary statistics concerning five and a half million children, it is possible to become overly focused on the problems of the disadvantaged one in six. Living in a lone-parent family can take both an emotional and economic toll. As well, low-income situations may be related not only to the lack of material goods, but also to school problems and poor health. The presence of poverty amidst plenty, especially graphic in the case of young children, attests to the perpetuation of pronounced inequality of conditions for some young Canadians.

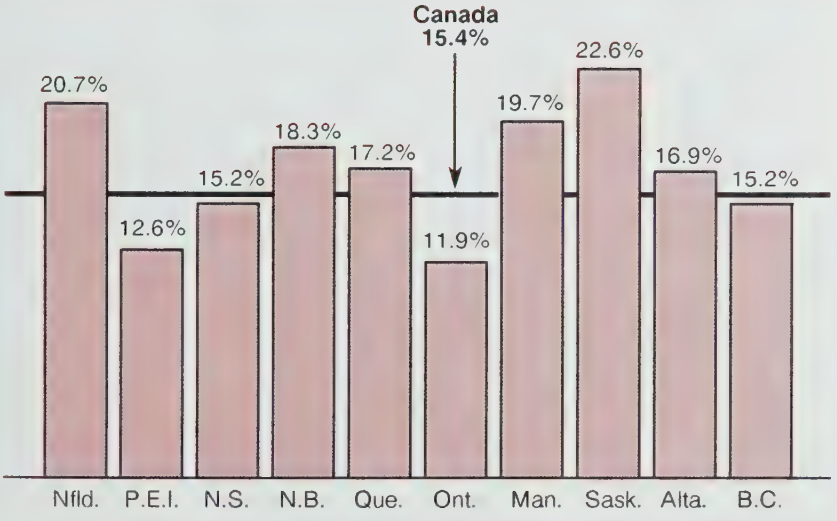
Yet undeniably, the majority of Canadian children lead comfortable lives. They are growing up in secure households with an abundance of facilities and opportunities that children in other parts of the world can scarcely imagine.

Alain Crégheur *and* **Mary Sue Devereaux**
are senior analysts with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

- More information on children can be found in Statistics Canada's *A Portrait of Children in Canada*, Catalogue 89-520.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Incidence of low income among children, by province, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division.

EARLY CHILDHOOD MORTALITY, 1926-1986

by Margaret King, Art Sorrell and Frank Trovato

Since early in the century, deaths among young children have decreased dramatically as a proportion of all deaths in Canada. This is mainly because of a significant drop in the mortality rate of children under 5 years old. Over the same period, deaths from infectious diseases have been largely brought under control in Canada and non-infectious diseases and conditions have replaced them as the major cause of death in early childhood.



Childhood deaths down

Early childhood deaths have declined as a proportion of total deaths since at least the 1920s. From 1981 to 1985, only 2% of deaths occurred among children aged less than 5 years, down sharply from 27% in the 1926-1930 period.

Most early childhood deaths occur in the first year of life. During the 1981-1985 period, infant deaths (those among children under 1 year) accounted for 83% of all deaths of children under 5 years old. Although down slightly from the peak of 86% in the 1956-1960 period, the proportion was still much higher than in the late 1920s when it was 76%.

Declining proportion of young children

By 1986, Canada's population numbered 25.4 million, up from 9.5 million in 1926. Between those years, the proportion of the population under 5 years old fluctuated considerably, reaching a low of 7.1% in 1986. After declining from 11.5% in 1926 to 8.9% in the late 1930s, the percentage of children this age peaked at 12.6% in 1958, reflecting baby-boom fertility. Since then, the proportion has been declining.

Major reasons for the recent decline in the proportion of the population under 5 years old are falling birth and death rates and the increasing longevity of Canadians.

The birth rate per 1,000 population fell from 24.6 births in 1926 to 19.9 in 1937, before rising to 28.7 in 1947. It remained high throughout the baby-boom period, before resuming its decline in the early 1960s. By 1986, the birth rate had dropped to 14.7 per 1,000 population.

The death rate per 1,000 population declined to 7.3 deaths in 1986 from 11.4 in 1926, with occasional reversals in the overall trend.

Canadians live much longer now than they did early in the century. For example, the life expectancy for girls born in 1986 was 80 years and for boys, 73 years. This was considerably higher than 62 years for girls and 60 years for boys in 1931.

As birth rates decline and the population ages, immigration may provide a way to bolster overall population. In addition, the age of immigrants will have an increasing effect on the age distribution of Canada's population.

Neonatal deaths (those among infants under 4 weeks old) now account for most infant deaths, a change of the pattern that prevailed early in the century. In the 1920s, there was a preponderance of postneonatal deaths (those among infants 4 weeks and older). During the following two decades, the proportions of postneonatal and neonatal deaths were generally equal. From 1981 to 1985, however, 65% of infant deaths occurred among children under 4 weeks old, down from a high of more than 70% in the 1966-1970 period.

Mortality rates

A main reason why early childhood deaths now account for a lower proportion of total deaths is that mortality rates among young children, particularly infants, have dropped very quickly.

By 1986, only 7.9 infants died per every 1,000 live births, compared with 101.8 in 1926. The decline in the rate was irregular, however, because of periodic infectious disease epidemics in this vulnerable segment of the population.

The magnitude of the decline in mortality rates among postneonatal and neonatal infants has been similar. Postneonatal rates, however, dropped somewhat faster, to 2.8 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1986 from 54.1 in 1926. Among infants under 4 weeks, the rate was 5.1 in 1986, down from 47.7 in 1926.

Among children aged 1-4 years, mortality rates also have declined throughout the century. However, within this age group, rates consistently have been highest among children 1 year old, declining with each subsequent year of age.

Stillbirths (fetal births occurring after 20 weeks gestation) are still considered less responsive to medical intervention but also show a steady decline. By 1986, only 6.2 stillbirths occurred per 1,000 live births, down considerably from 30.5 in 1926.

Male rates still higher

Throughout the 60 year period, death rates for both boys and girls plummeted. Male mortality rates remained higher than those of females but the gap has narrowed considerably. For example, in 1986, among infants aged 4 weeks and over, the rate for boys was 2.9 deaths per 1,000 live births, compared with a rate of 2.6 for girls. In 1926, male and female postneonatal mortality rates were 59.0 and 48.8, respectively.

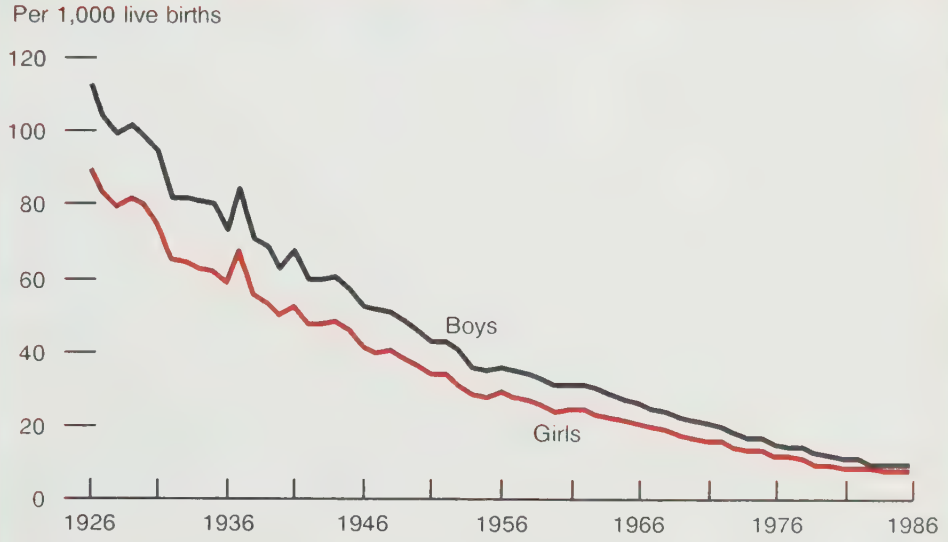
Similarly, in 1986, 5.8 deaths occurred for every 1,000 live births among males under 4 weeks old, compared with a rate of 4.5 for females. Sixty years earlier, the comparable rates were 53.9 for males and 43.1 for females.

Infectious and non-infectious diseases

Mortality rates for the broad categories of both infectious and non-infectious diseases have been declining since early in the century. Death rates from infectious diseases, however, have dropped much more sharply than those for non-infectious diseases.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

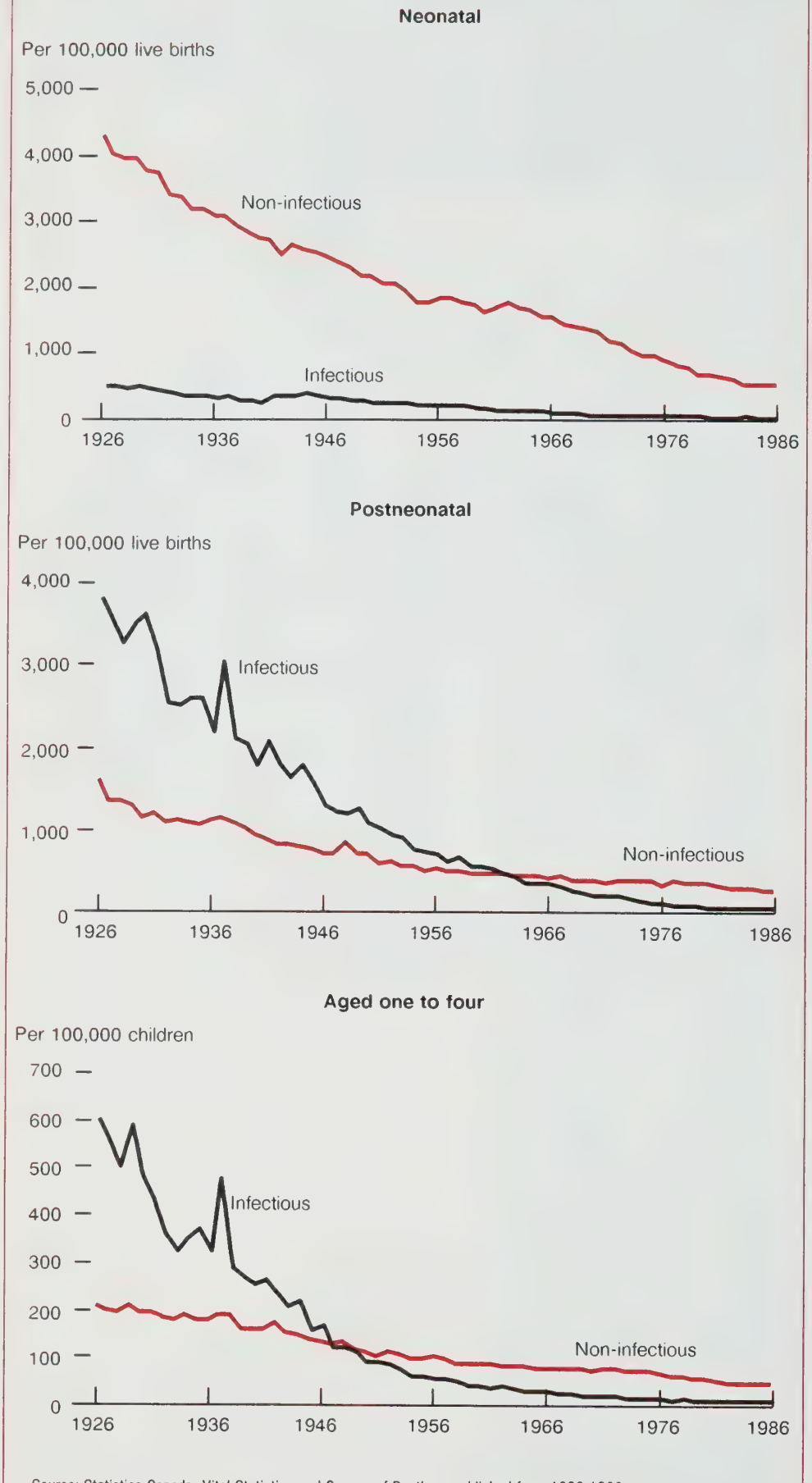
Infant[1] mortality rates, by sex, 1926-1986



[1] Children under 1 year.
Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics and Causes of Death as published from 1926-1986.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Early childhood mortality rates, by age and type of disease, 1926-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics and Causes of Death as published from 1926-1986.

Consequently, non-infectious diseases and conditions (including accidents, congenital anomalies, prematurity, cancer, and others) now account for most deaths among children under 5 years old. This reverses the pattern of earlier in the century when infectious diseases caused most early childhood deaths.

From 1981 to 1985, non-infectious diseases caused 90% of both deaths among children aged 1-4 years and postneonatal deaths. In contrast, in the 1926-1930 period, non-infectious diseases caused only 28% of deaths in this age range.

Unlike the pattern among other young children, non-infectious diseases have consistently accounted for most neonatal deaths. In the 1981-1985 period, such diseases caused 97% of neonatal deaths, up from 90% in the late 1920s.

Leading non-infectious causes of death

Among young children, mortality rates for all non-infectious diseases except cancer have declined sharply over the century. Differences in the magnitude of declines

Communicable childhood diseases

From 1926 to 1985, epidemics of communicable diseases (infections transmissable from person to person) have sometimes caused short-term reversals in the overall decline in mortality rates among young children. Tuberculosis and influenza epidemics influenced mortality rates early in this period. At various times, epidemics of measles, mumps, chicken pox, whooping cough, and scarlet fever also affected rates.

Nonetheless, mortality rates for all communicable diseases have dropped throughout the century. In fact, such diseases now cause very few childhood deaths. However, rates of illness from whooping cough are rising again due to decreased levels of immunization.

Of all infections, those of the gastrointestinal area and the respiratory tract accounted for most deaths in children under 5 years old since 1926. Although major outbreaks of gastrointestinal infections occurred several times up to 1941, the overall decline in mortality rates for such infections has been rapid. For respiratory infections, rates were high and fluctuating for children under 5 until 1945, but dropped off sharply after that.



have resulted in shifts in the leading causes of death.

Children aged 1-4 years: Accidents have been the leading cause of death among children aged 1-4 years since the 1960s. For example, in the 1981-1985 period, they accounted for 42% of deaths in this age range. In contrast, only 8% of deaths among 1-4-year-olds resulted from accidents in the 1926-1930 period, even though there were fewer actual deaths from accidents from 1981 to 1985.

Congenital anomalies, such as an incompletely formed nervous system or major organ, have accounted for a growing proportion of deaths as the decades advanced, and are now the second leading cause of death among children aged 1-4 years. From 1981 to 1985, 16% of young children died as a result of congenital anomalies, compared with only 1% in the late 1920s.

Cancer accounts for a larger proportion of deaths among children aged 1-4 years now than in the early 1930s. From 1981 to 1985, 11% of deaths among children this age resulted from cancer. Although

Percentage of deaths among children aged 1-4 due to selected causes, 1926-1985

	Infectious diseases	Non-infectious		
		Accidents	Congenital anomalies	Neoplasms
		%		
1926-1930	72.6	8.4	1.3	0.8
1931-1935	66.8	11.1	1.7	1.6
1936-1940	64.8	12.0	2.3	2.0
1941-1945	58.5	17.1	4.0	3.1
1946-1950	49.6	23.2	5.8	5.0
1951-1955	41.2	29.2	7.1	7.3
1956-1960	33.3	32.6	10.4	9.5
1961-1965	26.9	37.3	11.2	10.6
1966-1970	22.0	41.1	13.2	11.1
1971-1975	15.6	44.4	14.7	10.4
1976-1980	12.5	45.0	14.8	10.3
1981-1985	10.2	41.5	16.3	11.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics and Causes of Death as published from 1926-1985.

Percentage of infant deaths due to selected causes, 1926-1985

	Infectious diseases		Non-infectious diseases							
			Congenital anomalies		Prematurity		Accidents		Neoplasms[1]	
	Neo-natal	Post-neo-natal	Neo-natal	Post-neo-natal	Neo-natal	Post-neo-natal	Neo-natal	Post-neo-natal	Neo-natal	Post-neo-natal
	%									
1926-1930	10.3	72.0	8.9	4.0	41.1	2.9	0.7	1.2		
1931-1935	9.5	71.1	9.7	5.1	41.0	3.3	0.8	1.5		
1936-1940	8.5	67.9	11.2	6.9	40.6	4.3	0.6	2.1		
1941-1945	11.6	68.5	14.1	9.4	37.9	2.4	0.9	3.1		
1946-1950	10.4	62.7	14.0	11.3	38.1	2.1	1.0	5.1		
1951-1955	9.3	60.8	15.2	14.5	23.1	1.7	1.0	7.0	0.1	0.6
1956-1960	8.7	56.1	15.3	16.7	25.1	1.7	0.8	9.6	0.1	0.7
1961-1965	6.3	48.6	16.1	20.3	26.5	1.1	0.7	13.3	0.1	0.8
1966-1970	4.8	40.0	17.7	23.9	23.0	0.5	0.7	15.4	0.1	1.0
1971-1975	3.9	28.8	21.4	23.4	14.5	0.2	0.6	13.9	0.1	1.1
1976-1980	3.5	16.2	27.9	25.4	12.0	0.2	0.5	9.7	0.2	1.0
1981-1985	3.0	10.4	34.5	23.5	10.5	0.1	0.5	7.5	0.2	1.2

[1]Data not subdivided into neonatal and postneonatal age groups until 1950.
Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics and Causes of Death as published from 1926-1985.



this proportion has been relatively stable since the late 1950s, it is up considerably from 1% in the 1926-1930 period.

Infants: Since the early 1930s, congenital anomalies have accounted for an increasing proportion of infant deaths. Now the leading cause of death, these anomalies made up about one-quarter (24%) of postneonatal and one-third (35%) of neonatal deaths in the 1981-1985 period. These figures were up from 4% and 9%, respectively, in the 1926-1930 period.

Among neonatal infants, deaths due to prematurity have dropped sharply in recent decades. In the 1981-1985 period, only 11% of neonatal deaths resulted from prematurity; until the 1950s, the proportion was around 40%.

Margaret King *is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Sociology,* **John Gartrell** *is a Professor of Sociology and* **Frank Trovato** *is an Associate Professor of Sociology at the University of Alberta.*

SURGERY AMONG ELDERLY PEOPLE

by Mary Beth Maclean and Jillian Oderkirk



An increasing elderly population is placing greater demand on the health care system. Surgery, in particular, is becoming far more common among elderly people. From 1975 to 1987, the number of people aged 65 and over rose 46%, while the growth in the number of their surgical procedures was more than double that rate. In addition, among elderly people, surgery has increased as a percentage of all hospital procedures. Within the 65 and over age group, men have surgery more often than women, but women stay longer in hospital. For most major types of surgery among elderly people, rates have increased, with digestive and abdominal region surgery remaining most common.

Surgery increasing

Elderly patients are now more likely to have surgery as part of their hospitalization. Between 1975 and 1987, the number of surgical separations increased 104%, compared with a 59% increase in hospital separations. Consequently, surgical separations increased to 37% of all hospital separations among elderly people in 1987, up from 29% in 1975. For the non-elderly population, surgical separations rose to 55% of all hospital separations in 1987 from 50% in 1975.

Elderly/non-elderly gap widening

Surgery rates are higher for elderly people than for the younger population, and the difference has increased over time. From 1975 to 1987, the surgical separation rate for elderly people rose 40% to 13,800 per 100,000 elderly people. In contrast, the rate for non-elderly Canadians declined 12% to 6,400 per 100,000.

Elderly men have more surgery

Elderly people — particularly elderly men — are much more likely than those under 65 to have surgery. In 1987, elderly men had a surgical separation rate of 17,000 per 100,000, compared with 4,200 per 100,000 for non-elderly males. For elderly females, the surgery rate was 11,700 per 100,000 and 8,500 per 100,000 for non-elderly females.

There is less difference between the rates for elderly and non-elderly females than for elderly and non-elderly males. This is partly because obstetrical procedures are performed only on non-elderly females, increasing their surgery rates. When obstetrical procedures were excluded, the 1987 separation rate for non-elderly females fell to about 5,800 per 100,000.

Rate higher among very old

People aged 75 and over were more likely to have surgery than were those

Out-patient surgery

Surgical separation rates exclude out-patient surgeries. In 1987, there were more than 1.3 million visits to surgical out-patient programs in Canadian hospitals, a 93% increase from the 1976 total. By comparison, the number of surgical separations increased 12% over the same period to 1.8 million. As a result, the difference between in-patient surgical separations and total surgeries performed has grown.

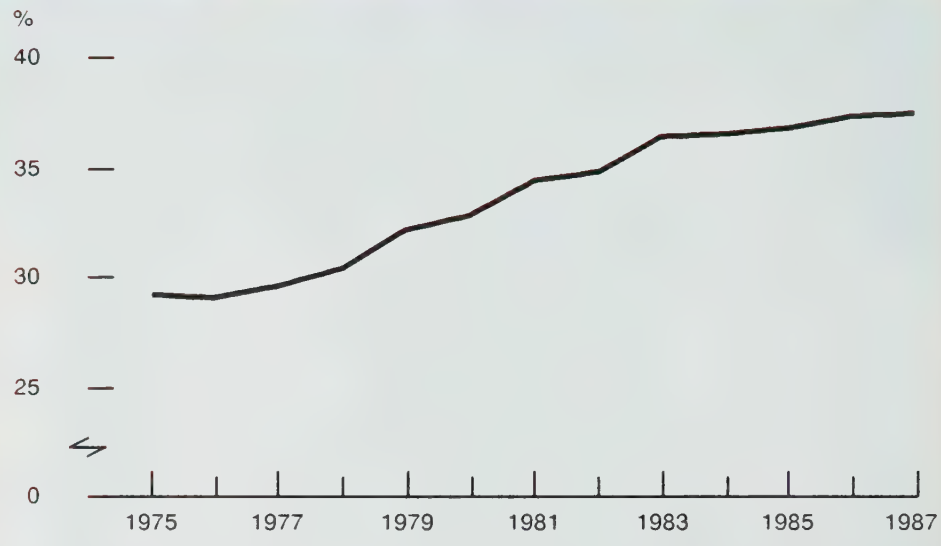
Hospital and surgical separations

A hospital separation is the discharge or death of an in-patient (a person admitted into a hospital). When an in-patient has surgery, this is counted as a surgical separation. Counts of surgical separations represent surgical procedures, not patients; thus, a patient having two kinds of surgery during a single hospital stay would be counted as two surgical separations.

Surgical separations exclude the Eighth Revision of the International Classification of Diseases Chapters XVIII to XXIII for the years 1975 to 1978 and the Canadian Classification of Diagnostic, Therapeutic, and Surgical Procedures Chapter I, Certain Diagnostic and Therapeutic Procedures, for the years 1979 to 1987.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

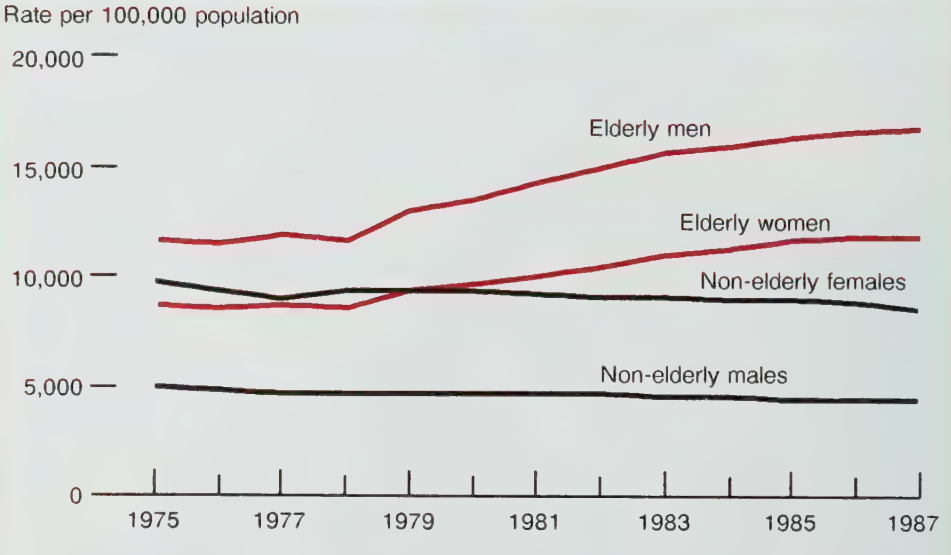
Surgical separations as a percentage of total hospital separations among elderly people, 1975-1987[1]



[1] Prior to 1979, data were collected for the calendar year. Since then, data have been collected from April 1 to March 31.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003s, 82-206 and 82-208.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Surgical separations, by age and sex, 1975-1987[1]



[1] Prior to 1979, data were collected for the calendar year. Since then, data have been collected from April 1 to March 31.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003s and 82-208.

aged 65 to 74. In 1987, the surgical separation rate was about 15,700 for every 100,000 people aged 75 and over, compared with 12,800 for those aged 65 to 74.

In addition, the rate for the 75 and older age group has increased more rapidly in recent years than the rate for the 65 to 74 group. From 1984 to 1987, the 75 and over group had a 10% increase; for the 65 to 74 group, the increase was 5%.

Days of hospital care

Elderly surgery patients stay longer in hospital than their younger counterparts. In 1987, the average number of days elderly surgery patients stayed in the hospital (17.3) was more than 10 days longer than the average for non-elderly surgery patients (6.6).

However, from 1981 to 1987, the average number of days elderly surgery patients spent in hospital declined 6%. This was a reversal of the trend from 1975 to 1981 when the number of days increased 4%.

In the 65 and over age group, female surgery patients spend more days in hospital than their male counterparts. In 1987, elderly women undergoing surgery stayed an average of 18.7 days, compared with 15.9 days for men. This 2.8 day difference was more than three times larger than the 0.8 day gap in 1975.

Types of surgery

Operations on the digestive system and abdominal region were the most common types of surgery for both elderly men and women in 1987: 3,800 surgeries of this type were performed for every 100,000 elderly men, and 2,400 for every 100,000 elderly women. Within this broad category, for elderly men, the highest rates were for hernia operations (1,100 per 100,000). For elderly women, gall bladder surgery rates were highest (just under 500 per 100,000).

The ranking of other leading surgeries differed for elderly men and women. The highest rates for elderly men included those for surgery on the genital organs (3,000 per 100,000), on the cardiovascular system (2,600), and on the eyes (1,700). For elderly women, high rates included those for surgery on the musculoskeletal system (2,300), on the eyes (2,100), and on the cardiovascular system (1,300).

Growth by type

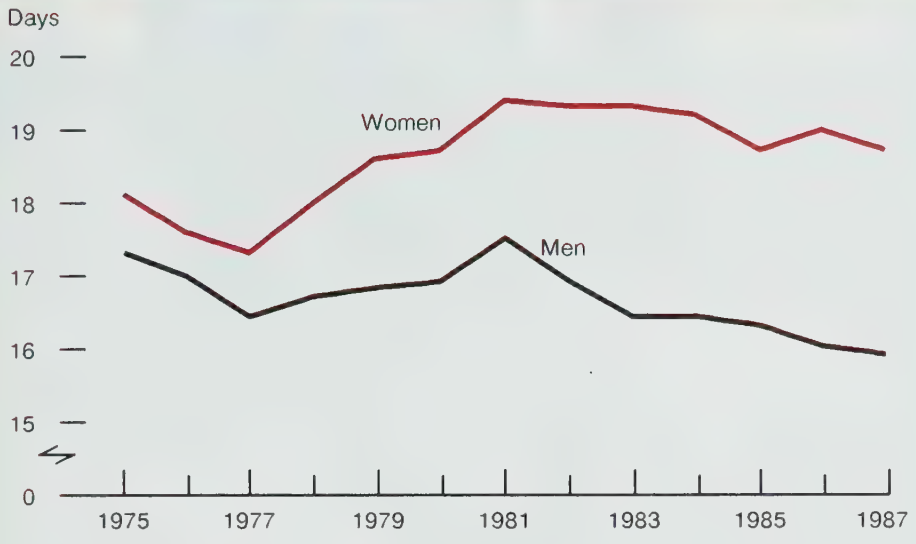
The surgery rates for most major surgery groupings increased from 1979 to 1987. For elderly males, cardiovascular surgery rates were the fastest growing (up 71%), followed by respiratory surgery (up 59%) and eye surgery (up 54%). For elderly women, surgery on the respiratory system was the fastest growing, increasing 77% from 1979 to 1987. Other rapidly growing surgery types for elderly women were operations on the eyes (up 67%) and the cardiovascular system (up 61%).

In contrast, surgery rates declined from 1979 to 1987 for operations on the ears, nose and mouth, male breast, female urinary tract and female subcutaneous tissue. The largest decline for females was a 13% drop in nose and mouth surgery. For males, the largest surgery rate decline was for breast surgery, which fell 31%.

Mary Beth Maclean *is an analyst with the Canadian Centre for Health Information, Statistics Canada and* **Jillian Oderkirk** *is an Assistant Editor with* **Canadian Social Trends**.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

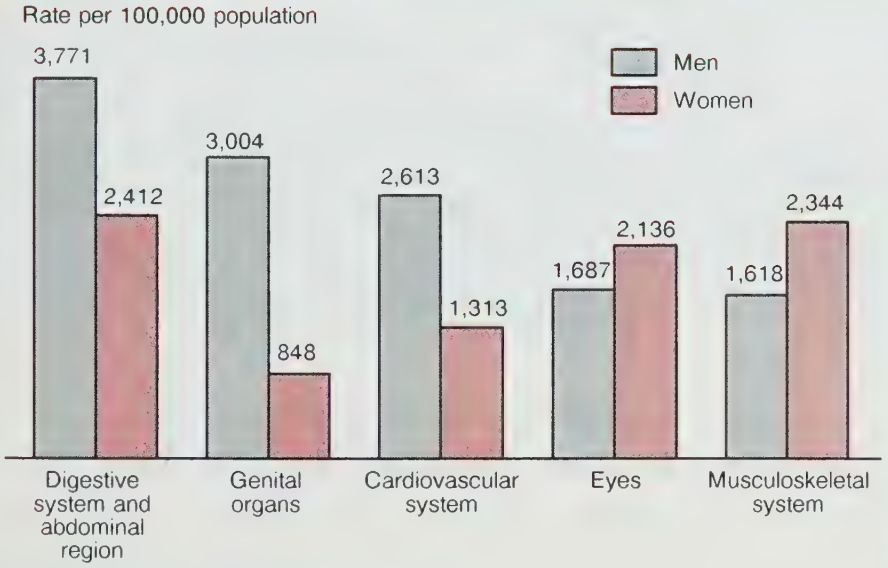
Average hospital stay of elderly surgery patients, by sex, 1975-1987[1]



[1] Prior to 1979, data were collected for the calendar year. Since then, data have been collected from April 1 to March 31.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003s and 82-208.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Surgical separations among elderly people, by major surgery group, 1987[1]



[1] Data collected from April 1, 1987 to March 31, 1988.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003s and 82-208.

INTRODUCING



Statistics Canada's most frequently requested health information - now in one comprehensive quarterly journal

- ***Feature Articles***... on key topics like the results of recent research on cancer, cardio-vascular disease, etiology, and the socio-economic impact of health issues on Canadians

- ***Highlights***... capsule summaries of the latest health data released by Statistics Canada

- ***Selected Indicators***... to let you track and monitor important health trends on a national, regional or provincial level, including hospital indicators, mortality and morbidity statistics and national health levels

And, every issue of ***Health Reports*** includes a list of available information and sources to contact for specialized tabulations or custom data.

Be informed. Don't miss a single issue. Order your subscription today!

A subscription to ***Health Reports*** (Catalogue No. 82-003) is $104 annually in Canada, US$125 in the United States and US$146 in other countries.

To order, write to: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre, listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to

1-613-951-1584

Or call toll free at

1-800-267-6677

and use your VISA or MasterCard.

MARRIED AND UNMARRIED COUPLES: THE TAX QUE$TION

by Richard J. Morrison and Jillian Oderkirk



Since the mid-1960s, income taxes have grown to be the single largest expense for families. In 1986, urban Canadian families and unattached individuals devoted 20% of average expenditures to income taxes, up from 9% in 1964.

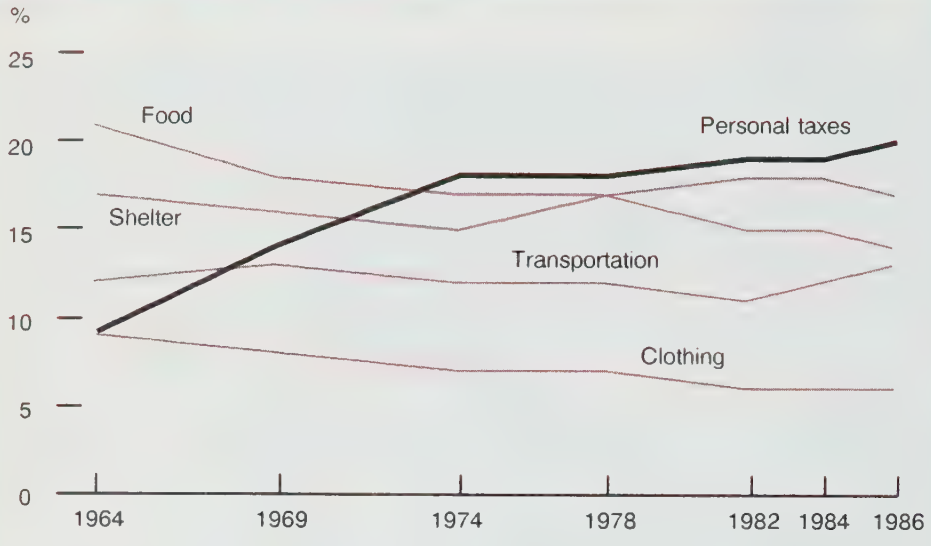
Over the same period, Canada's system of tax and transfer payment programs has changed considerably. New transfer payment programs, such as the Guaranteed Income Supplement and the Child Tax Credit, were introduced. Many changes were specifically designed to aid the economically disadvantaged, particularly lone-parent families and elderly individuals. While current programs have moved toward this goal, another effect has been to place a relatively greater financial burden on married couples than on those who remain unmarried.

Statistics Canada's Social Policy Simulation Database and Model (SPSD/M) was used to estimate the average difference between the disposable income of married-couple families and comparable families where spouses were not legally married. From this, the aggregate amount of these income differences was also estimated. While the calculation is hypothetical and based on specific assumptions, it illustrates how program legislation and couples' living arrangements interact to generate large financial effects. (See box: Using the SPSD/M).

Most married-couple families have lower disposable incomes than unmarried couples living together in similar circumstances. This is particularly the case for elderly married couples and married couples with young children. This discrepancy reflects the effects of current transfer payment programs, and to a lesser extent tax programs, which tend to provide proportionately greater benefits to persons living alone and to lone parents than to married-couple families. Therefore, when two lone-parent families or two elderly people live together without being married, their combined transfer payment benefits, all other things being equal, will generally be greater than those received by comparable married-couple families.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

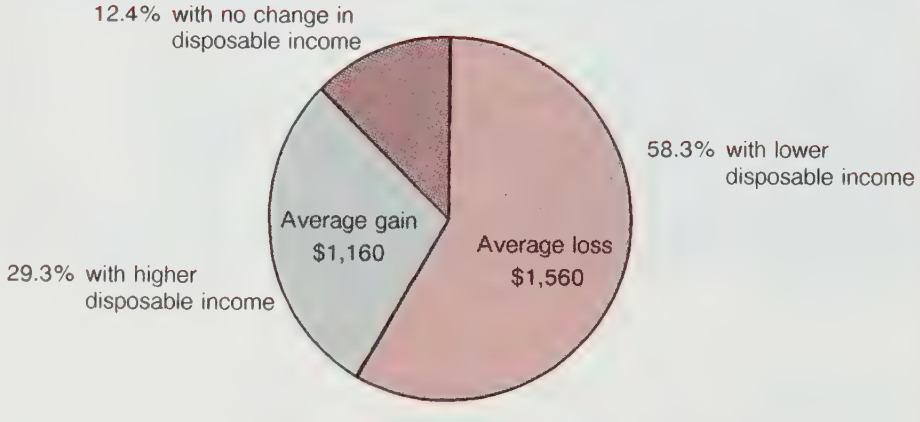
Percentage of total expenditure on selected items, by urban families and unattached individuals, 1964-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-555 and Household Surveys Division, unpublished data.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Financial impact on married-couple families, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model, version 4.0.

Most couples affected

According to the 1989 SPSD/M estimates, 58% of married-couple families had less disposable income than if they were an unmarried-couple family under the provisions of the tax and transfer payment system. The amount involved for these families totalled $5.6 billion or an average of $1,560 per family.

On the other hand, 29% of married-couple families received an increase in their disposable income relative to their unmarried counterparts. This increase totalled $2.1 billion or $1,160 per family. A minority of married-couple families, 12%, would have maintained essentially the same level of disposable income if the partners had been unmarried.

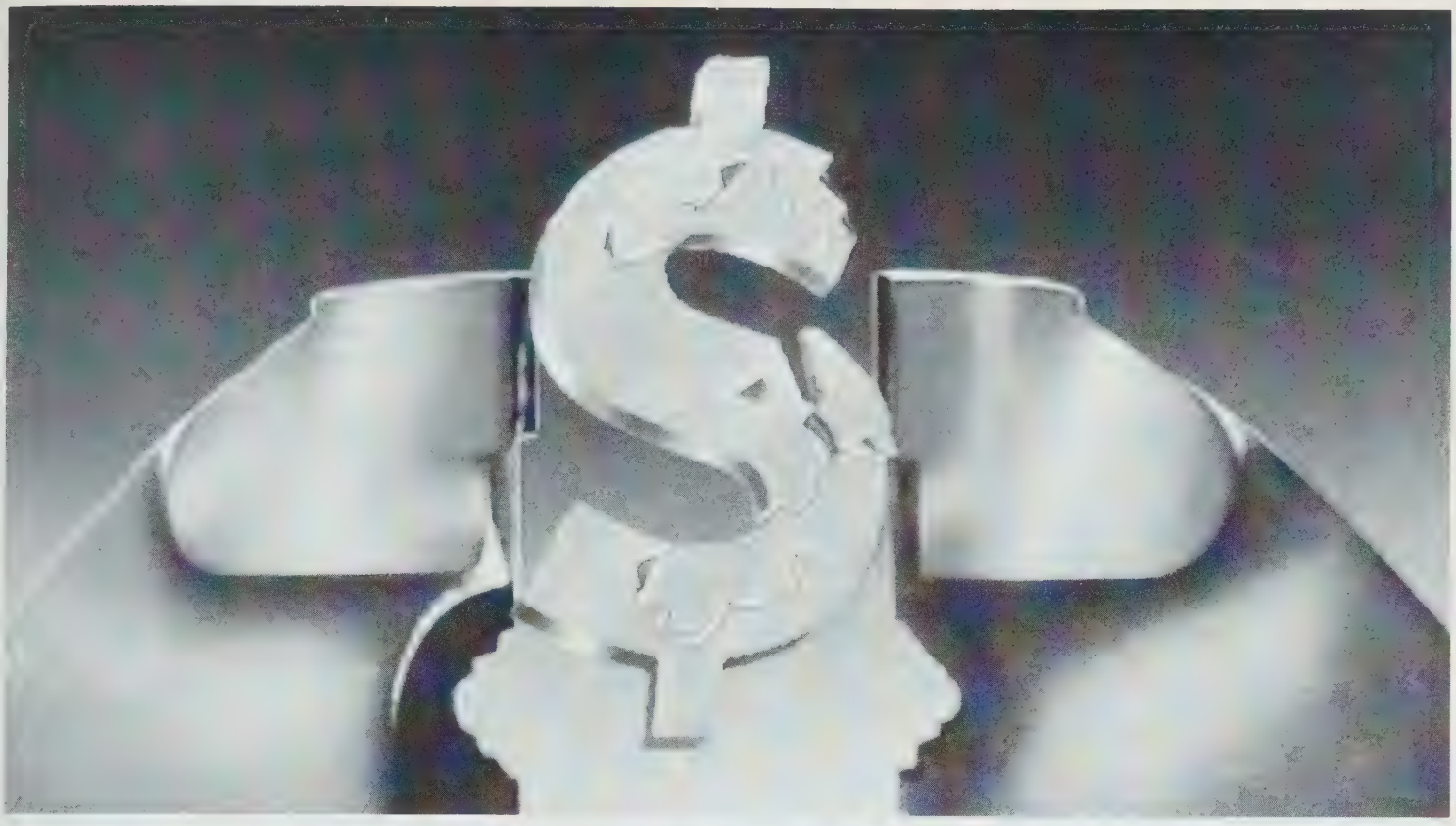
Family structure variations

On average, unmarried couples appear to fare better under the income tax system than married couples. However, whether or not a co-habitating couple will have

Common-law unions

In 1986, 487,000 couples were living in a common-law relationship, a 37% increase over 1981. Common-law unions accounted for 8% of couples in 1986, up from 6% in 1981.

The proportion of people aged 15 and over who were living in a common-law union rose from 3.9% in 1981 to 5.0% in 1986. In contrast, over the same period, the proportion of people who were legally married declined from 57.3% to 55.6%.



Average financial impact of the tax and transfer system, by family type and income group, 1989

	Number of married-couple families				Average decrease of families with less income	Average increase of families with more income	Net average difference (all families)
	Total	Who would have less income	Whose income remains unchanged	Who would have more income			
	000s					$	
Family type							
Married couples:							
With no children	1,573	586	516	472	-150	1,010	250
With children aged 18 or less	2,998	2,058	68	873	-1,670	950	-870
With all children over age 18	632	232	136	264	-430	1,100	300
With at least one elderly spouse	944	708	42	194	-2,780	2,540	-1,560
Family income group[1]							
$10,000 and under	85	18	49	17	-450	570	20
10,001-20,000	699	325	70	303	-2,540	1,670	-460
20,001-30,000	1,208	612	15	580	-1,550	1,290	-170
30,001-40,000	1,420	861	72	487	-1,200	910	-410
40,001-50,000	1,083	739	149	195	-1,520	910	-870
50,001-60,000	719	471	146	102	-1,700	980	-980
60,001-70,000	374	230	100	44	-1,650	1,010	-900
70,001 and over	561	327	161	74	-1,450	900	-730
All married-couple families	**6,148**	**3,584**	**762**	**1,803**	**-1,560**	**1,160**	**-570**

[1]Income after direct and indirect taxes.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model, version 4.0.

more (or less) disposable income after marriage depends heavily on family structure. Elderly couples and couples with young children are more likely than other family types to have less disposable income following marriage.

Couples with at least one person aged 65 or older are the most likely to have less disposable income following marriage and their disposable income reduction is the largest. In 1989, 75% of married-couple families with an elderly spouse had less disposable income than comparable unmarried-couple families. Had the spouses in these families been unmarried and living together, their disposable family income would have been higher by approximately $2,780 per family, totalling over $1.9 billion for all such families.

Similarly, married couples with children aged 18 years and under are also likely to have lower disposable incomes than comparable unmarried couples. In 1989, 69% of these married-couple families had less disposable income than their unmarried counterparts, averaging $1,670 less per family. Thus, all other things being equal, the disposable income for all these families was $3.4 billion lower than if the couples had not been married.

In contrast, relatively few married couples with no children or with children over 18 had lower disposable incomes as a result of the provisions of the tax and transfer payment system. Just 37% of each of these family types experienced such

How it happens: tax and transfer programs

Provisions of various tax and transfer programs can result in differences in disposable income for married and unmarried couples. Provisions are often based on a person's legal marital status.

- Some benefits, such as the Equivalent to Married Credit, are not available to married couples. The Equivalent to Married Credit is a non-refundable amount available to a tax-payer who is single, divorced, separated, widowed, or living in a common-law relationship and who supports one relative, such as a child, whose annual income is less than a specified amount.
- Transfer payments from many programs, such as the Child Tax Credit and the Guaranteed Income Supplement, are based on the incomes of adult family members; benefits are reduced for married couples based on the sum of the two partners' incomes. In programs such as the Guaranteed Income Supplement, the guarantees per person may be larger for an unattached individual than for a spouse.
- The tax system stipulates which member of a couple must claim certain forms of income, such as Family Allowance, or certain deductions, such as child care expenses and credits related to dependant children. This may increase income tax payable.
- Other provisions may benefit married couples: Spouse's Allowance benefits, the Married Credit in the tax system, and various transferrable tax credits.
- Some transfer payments, such as Family Allowances and Old Age Security benefits, do not depend on marital status.

Calculations for an example couple

To see how differences could have occurred in 1989, consider the following example: two lone parents in Ontario are considering marriage. They live next to each other in semi-detached housing and they do not plan to move after marriage.

Assume that each parent earns $25,000 a year, has one pre-school child, pays $2,500 per year for child care, and $350 per month for rent. Their income taxes as a married couple exceed the income taxes they paid as two separate lone-parent families. As a married couple, the two would pay an additional $2,474 in federal and provincial income taxes, and receive $1,284 less in refundable tax credits. The decline in their disposable income following marriage, all other things being equal, would be $3,758, corresponding to a 96% drop in tax credit transfers, and a 43% increase in income taxes payable before refundable credits.

Income taxes paid and benefits received by example couple, 1989

	Each lone-parent family	Combined lone-parent families (not married)	Married-couple family	Married-couple family net difference
			$	
Income				
Employment income before deductions	25,000	50,000	50,000	0
Family Allowance payments	393	786	786	0
Non-refundable tax credits				
Amount for dependant children	0	0	133	133
Equivalent to Married Credit	859	1,718	0	-1,718
Income taxes (before refundable credits)				
Federal	1,912	3,824	5,473	-1,649
Ontario	956	1,912	2,737	-825
Total	2,868	5,736	8,210	-2,474
Refundable tax credits				
Child Tax Credit	565	1,130	58	-1,072
Federal Sales Tax Credit	0	0	0	0
Ontario Tax Credit	106	212	0	-212
Total	671	1,342	58	-1,284
Total income taxes (less refundable tax credits)	2,197	4,394	8,152	- 3,758

effects in 1989 and the effects were not as great. Of married-couple families who had lower disposable incomes, those with no children averaged $150 less per family, while married couples with children over 18 had averaged $430 less per family.

Families with two or more earners were more likely than one-earner families to have lower disposable incomes as a consequence of being married. In 1989, two-thirds (67%) of families with two or more earners had less disposable income because of the tax and transfer payment system, compared with one-third (32%) of one-earner families.

Most income groups affected

In most income groups in 1989, between one-half and two-thirds of all married-couple families had lower disposable incomes than comparable unmarried couples. However, just 21% of families with incomes under $10,000 (after direct and indirect taxes) had lower disposable incomes than their unmarried counterparts.

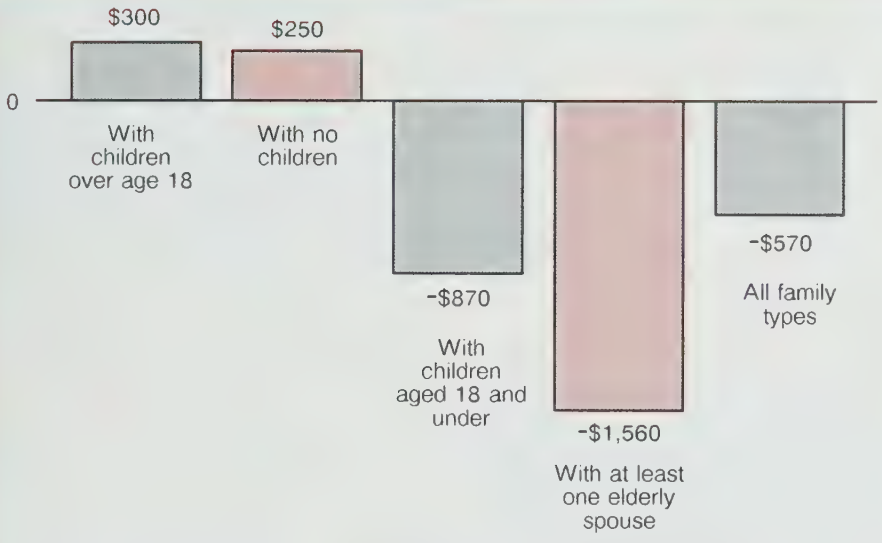
Married-couple families with incomes between $10,000 and $20,000 who had lower disposable incomes averaged $2,540 less per family. In other income groups (except incomes under $10,000), the reduction ranged from $1,200 to $1,700.

Transfer payments have largest impact

The relative disadvantage of married

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

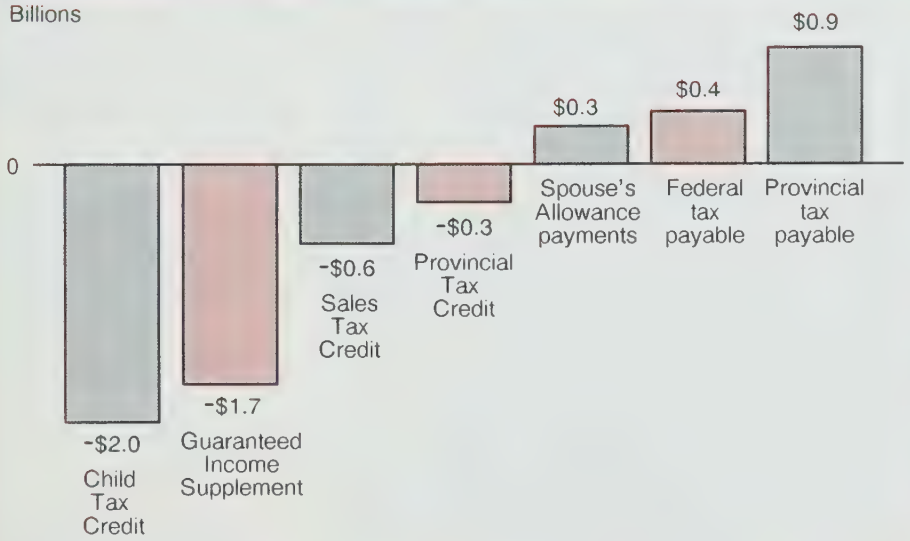
Average net financial impact[1] on married-couple families, by family type, 1989



[1] Represents the difference between the average disposable income of married-couple families and their unmarried counterparts.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model, version 4.0.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Net financial impact[1] on married-couple families, by major government program, 1989



[1] Represents the difference between the components of disposable income for married-couple families and their unmarried counterparts.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model, version 4.0.



couples compared to their unmarried counterparts stems more from reduced transfer payments than increased income taxes. Under current transfer payment programs, had all married-couple families been unmarried in 1989, they would have received an estimated $4.7 billion more federal and provincial government transfer payments. Couples with young children would have received 54% of this amount and elderly couples, 40%. In 1989, two federal government transfer payment programs, the Child Tax Credit ($2.0 billion) and the Guaranteed Income Supplement ($1.7 billion), accounted for over 80% of the estimated transfer payments married-couple families would have received.

Net financial impact on married-couple families, by tax and transfer payment programs and federal and provincial government programs, 1989

	Net difference from				
	Transfer payment programs[1]	Tax programs	Federal programs	Provincial programs	Government programs
			$000,000		
Family type					
Married couples:					
With no children	-157	550	227	166	393
With children aged 18 or less	-2,528	-78	-2,822	215	-2,607
With children over age 18	-133	324	81	111	192
With at least one elderly spouse	-1,845	374	-1,310	-162	-1,472
All married-couple families	**-4,663**	**1,170**	**-3,824**	**330**	**-3,494**

[1]Transfer payment programs include the refundable Child Tax Credit and Sales Tax Credit.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model, version 4.0.

Using the SPSD/M

Statistics Canada's Social Policy Simulation Database and Model (SPSD/M) was used to estimate differences between the disposable income of married-couple families and unmarried-couple families. The SPSD/M, version 4.0 is a publicly accessible PC-based microsimulation model of the principal federal and provincial taxes and cash transfer programs. Cash transfer programs include the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, Old Age Security, Guaranteed Income Supplement, Spouses Allowance, Unemployment Insurance, Family Allowance, and refundable income tax credits in the personal tax system such as the Child Tax Credit, Federal Sales Tax Credit, and Provincial Tax Credit.

The SPSD/M calculated all relevant taxes and transfers for couples in the sample of the Canadian population. Then, each marriage was "dissolved"; that is, it was assumed that all couples were not married. Any children from the original family were arbitrarily assigned to the mother, resulting in a lone-parent family. The taxes and transfer payments for both of the family units created by the split couples were then recalculated. The difference in the total disposable incomes, calculated across the intact and split units, measured the income increase or decrease for that family. This mechanism is, of course, not perfect. For example, it does not adjust for the changed expenditure patterns that would result if the marriages were really dissolved; it misses changes in some transfer programs such as Social Assistance; it omits some effects that would occur over time; and it fails to capture the effects that could accrue if some children were assigned to the father. But, it has the advantage of being easy to compute, and has a generally conservative bias, i.e., by its omissions, it tends to understate the income difference between married and unmarried couples.

For more information on the Social Policy Simulation Database and Model contact:

Steve Gribble
Chief, SPSD/M Project,
Statistics Canada,
24-M R.H. Coats Bldg.,
Tunney's Pasture,
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T6

The federal transfer payment programs whose provisions enable unmarried couples to benefit more than comparable married couples are relatively new. The Guaranteed Income Supplement program, which contributes to the income difference among the elderly population, was introduced in 1966. The Child Tax Credit, which affects parents with young children, was implemented for the 1978 tax year. Even more recently, the Sales Tax Credit was introduced.

In contrast to the overall effects of transfer payments, federal and provincial government tax programs tend to provide net savings for married couples. In 1989, married-couple families received $1.2 billion more disposable income from tax programs than if they were not married. However, married couples with young children received an estimated $78 million less because of tax programs. This is largely because the Equivalent to Married Credit is unavailable to married-couple families and because the Income Tax Act stipulates which member of a married couple must claim dependant children, and report child-related expenses and income received from Family Allowance payments.

Twenty-five years ago, the Income Tax Act did not include these stipulations. Also, more families then had only one earner and were eligible for the financial bonuses associated with the Married Exemption (now the Married Credit). In 1967, the proportion of families with both a husband and a wife earning a salary was just 34%; however, by 1987, this proportion had increased to 62%.

Dr. Richard J. Morrison *is the Co-ordinator for the CPP Policy Model at Health and Welfare Canada and* **Jillian Oderkirk** *is an Assistant Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

DEMOGRAPHICS MADE EASY

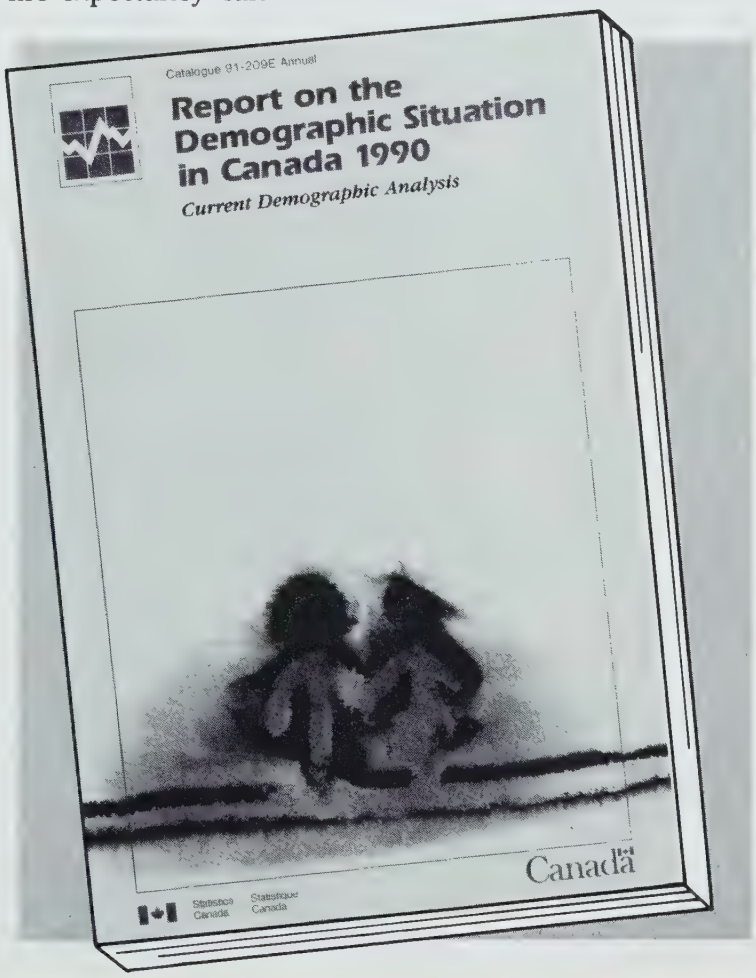
Every day you read news items about immigration, aging of the population or fertility. Unfortunately, these stories are often fragmented, making it difficult to get a complete picture of the demographic situation in Canada.

Statistics Canada's annual **Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada** is written to help you understand these demographic interactions and their effects. You'll see, for example, how gains in life expectancy can affect the number of divorces and how the divorce rate impacts on the number of marriages.

The birth rate of new Canadians, population growth, the main causes of death, abortion rates... it's all there. You'll find data and analysis on a wide range of topics presented in both a geographic and a historical context. With a sound understanding of current trend analysis, you'll be well positioned to draw your own conclusions about what the future may hold.

Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada contains more than 50 tables, many revealing graphs, and a concise, easy-to-read text. A handy glossary is also provided which will help newcomers master unfamiliar technical terms.

Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada (Cat. no. 91-209E) sells for only $26 (plus 7% GST) in Canada, US$31 in the United States, and US$36 in other countries.

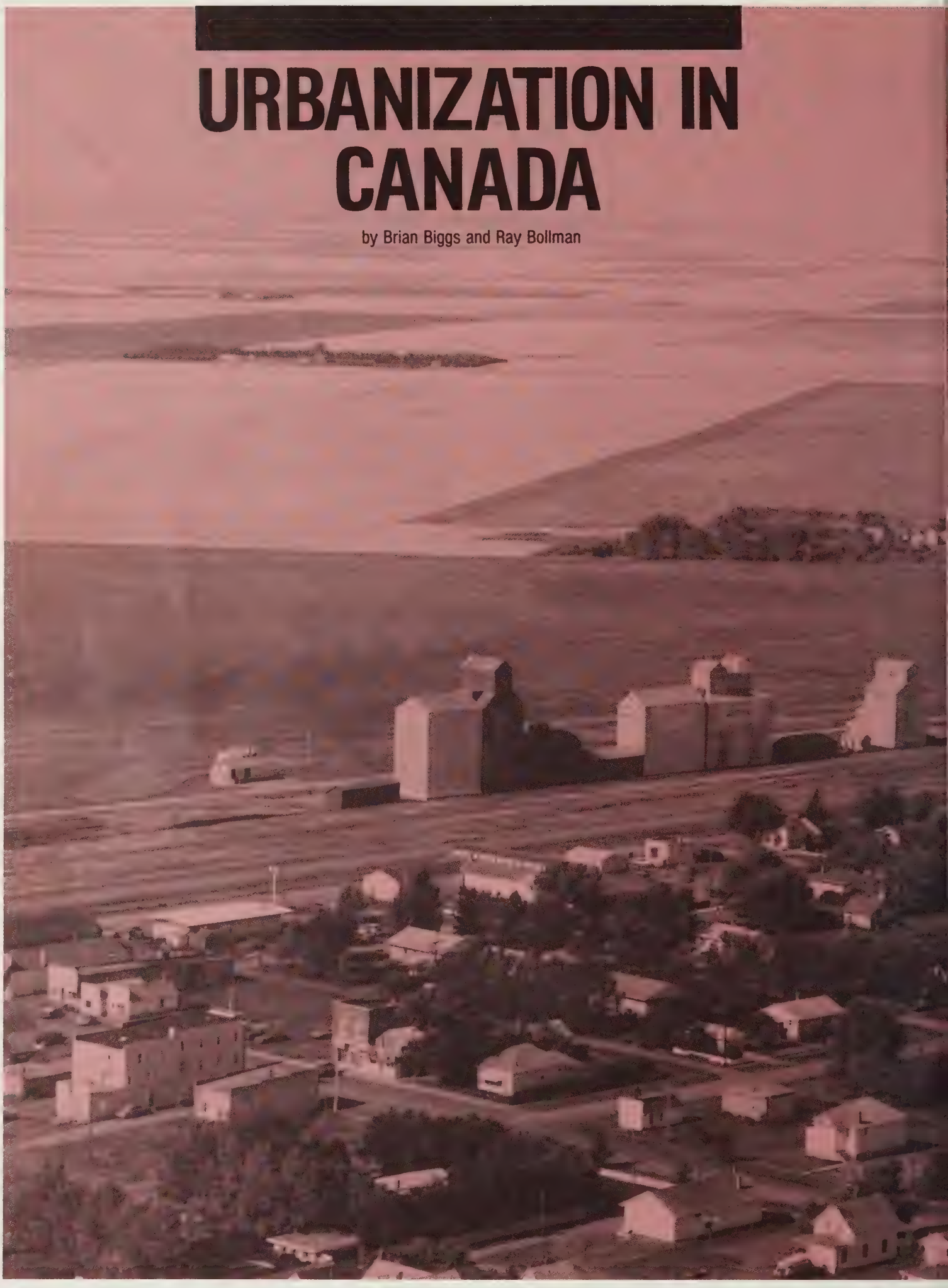


To order a copy, or to subscribe to this annual publication, please write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6.
FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service call 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

URBANIZATION IN CANADA

by Brian Biggs and Ray Bollman





SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

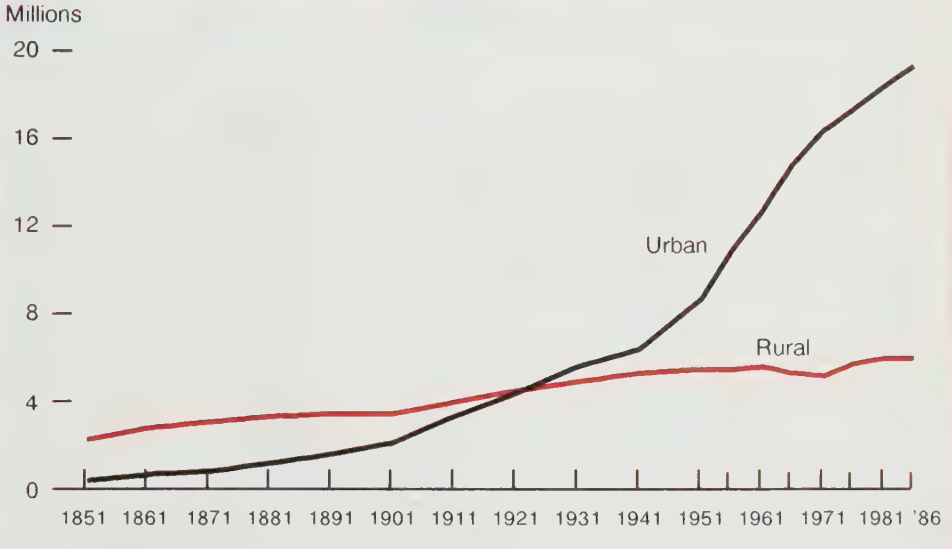


Exerpted from a paper prepared for the Rural and Small Town Canada: Economic and Social Reality Conference organized by Statistics Canada in October 1990.

Urbanization has been a persistent feature of Canada's demographic history since Confederation. It can be viewed as both a cause and an effect of socioeconomic change. Migration from rural to urban areas has occurred largely in response to perceived greater economic opportunities in cities. And while concentration of population in large cities is presumed to foster economic expansion through the creation of agglomeration economies (e.g. provision of specialized financial services, the availability of an experienced workforce), it has also led to growing societal problems such as crime and declining social cohesion. Cause and effect aside, the changing distribution of population growth between rural and urban Canada is central to concerns about the viability of rural areas, and the magnification of social problems associated with urban size.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Urban population majority since 1931



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Urban transformation

Population has grown in both urban and rural Canada since 1851. Undeniably, however, the major trend has been towards urbanization. Canada's transformation from a rural to an urban society occurred less than 70 years ago: the switch took place between 1921 and 1931.

By 1986, the 19 million people living in urban areas accounted for 77% of the total Canadian population, and the remaining 6 million (24%) lived in rural areas. This contrasts sharply with the distribution of the population in 1851 when 87% of Canadians lived in rural areas, and just 13% lived in urban centres.

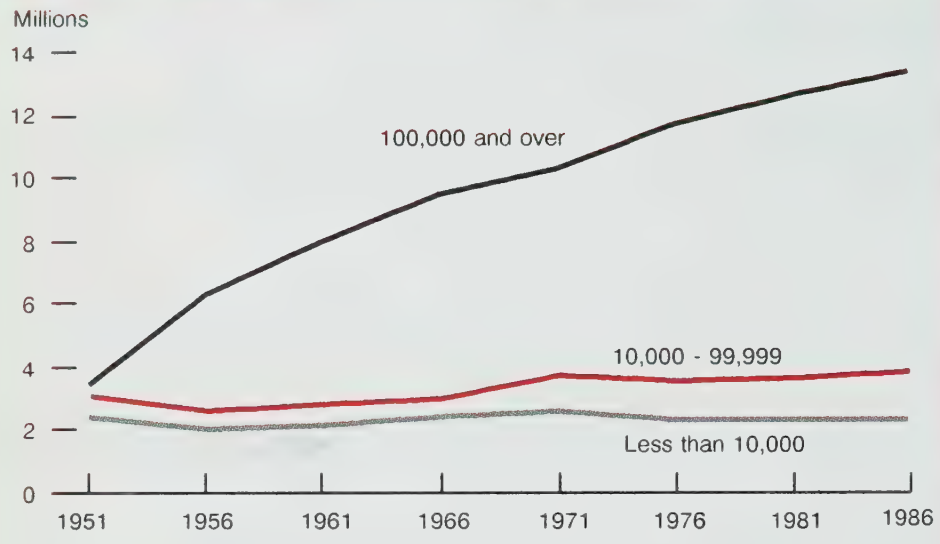
Metropolitan growth

Urban population growth from 1951 to 1986 varied by size of the urban area. Large centres grew more quickly than smaller centres. Most of the growth occurred in centres with populations of 100,000 and over, resulting in an increasing concentration of population in Canada's Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs).

By 1986, more than half of the Canadian population lived in large CMAs. In fact, that year, the nine largest CMAs (Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, Winnipeg, Quebec City and Hamilton),[1] accounted for 47% of the Canadian population, and the top three CMAs for 31%. This compared with the 1951 figures of 32% for the top nine CMAs and 22% for the top three.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Urban areas with populations of 100,000 and over growing fastest



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Population in the top nine CMAs, and urban and rural Canada, 1951 and 1986

	1951		1986	
	000s	% of population	000s	% of population
CMAs				
Toronto	1,117.5	8.0	3,427.2	13.5
Montreal	1,395.4	10.0	2,921.4	11.5
Vancouver	530.7	3.8	1,380.7	5.5
Ottawa-Hull	281.9	2.0	819.3	3.2
Edmonton	173.1	1.2	785.5	3.1
Calgary	139.1	1.0	671.3	2.7
Winnipeg	354.1	2.5	625.3	2.5
Quebec	274.8	2.0	603.3	2.4
Hamilton	259.7	1.9	557.0	2.2
Total	**4,526.3**	**32.3**	**11,790.9**	**46.6**
Urban	8,628.3	61.6	19,352.1	76.5
Rural	5,381.2	38.4	5,957.2	23.5
Canada	14,009.4	100.0	25,309.3	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.



Components of growth

Population growth results from two things: natural increase (the surplus of births over deaths) and net migration (immigration minus emigration). Changes in rural/urban population ratios are a function of the differences in birth/death rates, migration between rural/urban areas, immigrant settlement patterns, and the reclassification of areas (from urban to rural and vice versa) resulting from changes in population density.

[1] Since 1956, these CMAs have remained the nine largest.

From 1981 to 1986, 65% of population growth occurred in the Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver CMAs.[2]

And, in fact, population in the top nine CMAs grew more sharply than the overall urbanization trend. The top nine CMAs grew by 10%, and the top three by 9%, compared with just 5% for all urban areas.

Most of the population growth took place in the urban cores. In fact, between 1981 and 1986, 75% of the total population growth occurred in the urban cores of Canada's CMAs and Census Agglomerations.

Rural growth

The rural population has increased in number since the mid-1800s. In 1986, 6 million people lived in rural areas, compared with 4.8 million in 1931 and just 2.1 million in 1851. In recent years, much of the growth has occurred among the non-farm population living in the rural fringes of large urban centres.

The number of people living on farms declined sharply from 1931 (the year statistics were first compiled on the farm population) to 1986, whereas the rural non-farm population showed an equally strong rise.

Since 1956, most rural Canadians have lived in non-farm areas. By 1986, the rural

[2] When the effect of boundary expansion on population growth is removed, this decreases to 48% of total population growth.

Urban/rural definitions

Since 1931, urban populations have been defined in terms of residence in incorporated cities and towns. The definition has increasingly incorporated density measures to account for the urban sprawl. This is reflected in the current definition of the urban population as persons living in continuously built-up areas with a population of 1,000 or more and a population density of 400 per square kilometre.

The definition of urban used by Statistics Canada has changed several times since 1931. These changes have not added a directional bias to the urbanization trend. However, reversals of trends lasting only one or two intercensal periods may have been largely because of these definitional changes.

For Canada, Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) and Census Agglomerations (CAs) are defined as the main labour markets for urbanized cores with a population of 100,000 and over and 10,000 and over, respectively.

CMAs and CAs contain rural as well as urban population. Urban or rural fringes are urban or rural areas within CMAs or CAs, but outside the urban core.

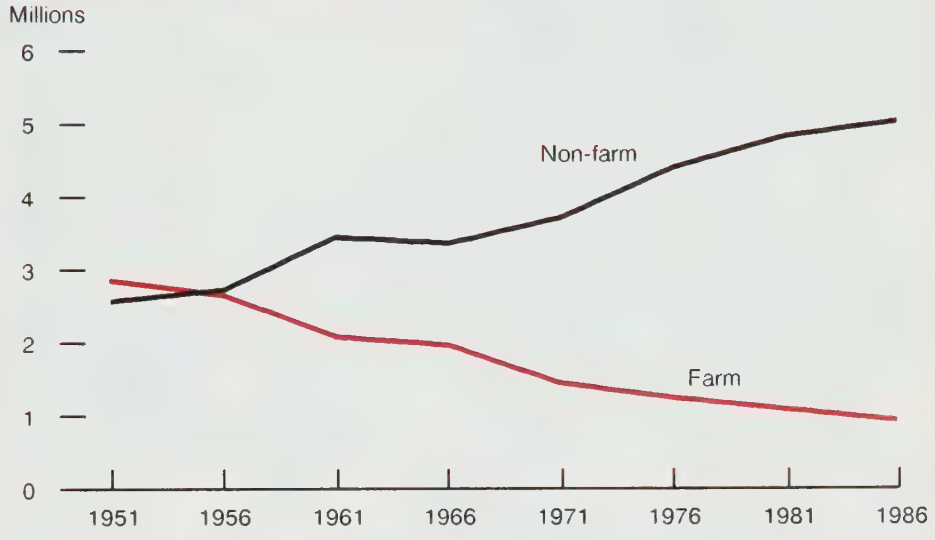
The rural population is composed of residents of non-urban areas. Within this population are people who live on farms as well as non-farm residents.

The rural farm population comprises members of a household of a farm operator who live on his/her farm for any length of time during the twelve-month period prior to the census. Only one operator is assigned to each census farm.

In 1986, a census farm was an agricultural holding with sales of agricultural products of $250 or more during the previous twelve months.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

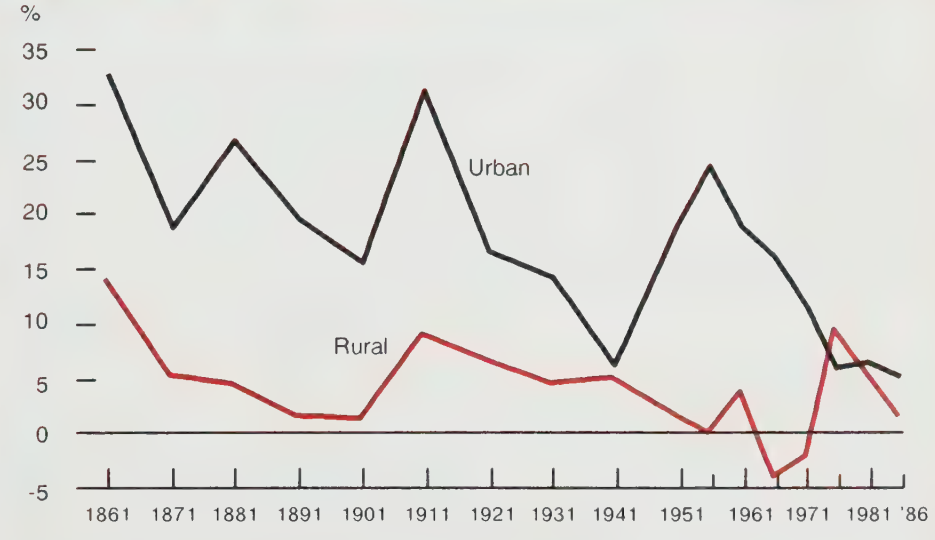
Farmer minority in rural Canada since 1956



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Urban growth rates exceeded rural except in 1971-1976



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

farm population numbered 890,480, down from 2.6 million in 1956 and 3.2 million in 1931. In contrast, the rural non-farm population numbered 5 million people in 1986, up from 2.7 million in 1956 and 1.6 million in 1931. By 1986, the rural non-farm population accounted for 85% of rural Canadians, up from 32% in 1931.

Urban/rural growth rates

Urban growth rates exceeded rural growth rates from 1861 to 1986, except during the early 1970s. From 1971 to 1976, the urbanization trend was reversed and rural growth rates narrowly exceeded those for urban expansion. While rural non-farm population increased sharply, farm population actually declined by 14%. Indeed, the growth rates for rural non-farm population exceeded increases for all sizes of urban areas.

The interruption of urbanization, which also occurred in the United States and other developed nations, sparked speculation of a rural renaissance and provoked research into the reasons for, and even the existence of, a turnaround.

In Canada, much of rural population growth during this period occurred close to major urban centres, suggesting that some of the measured rural growth could be attributed to urban spill-over. Other reasons are less clear.

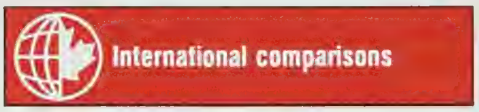
While a significant movement of people from urban to rural areas occurred during the 1970s, the effect on urbanization was largely offset by the influx of international migrants to Canadian urban areas. As well, the growth rate of the rural population in Canada differed depending upon whether or not rural areas that had been reclassified to urban were included in the calculation.

Rural growth rates were again below those of urban areas in the 1976-1981 and 1981-1986 periods. Thus, the rural renaissance appears to have been ephemeral. Nevertheless, differences between rural and urban growth rates have been smaller since 1971 than they were in the 1950s and 1960s, suggesting that while urbanization is not reversing, it has slowed markedly.

Urban/rural migration

Most Canadians move to urban areas, either from rural areas or other urban areas. However, from 1971 to 1986, there was also a net gain in the rural population due to internal migration. This occurred because people moving from urban to rural areas outnumbered those moving from rural to urban areas.

The net internal transfer of population to rural areas reached its peak of 256,000 people from 1976 to 1981, and declined to 77,000 in the 1981-1986 period. This reflected less movement into rural regions rather than an increasing level of migration out of rural areas.



The phenomenon of urbanization is not isolated to Canada. Population concentration in urban centres has been evident in much of the world since at least the 1950s.[3]

By 1985, 41% of the world's population lived in urban areas. The United Nations projects that the proportion will increase to more than 60% by 2025. In the more developed regions, where urbanization is proceeding more slowly than in the less developed regions, the urban proportion of the population is projected to increase to 78% by 2025, from 72% in 1985. In contrast, in the less developed regions, where overall population growth is still high, the

Urban/rural migration, 1966-1986

1966 Place of residence	1971 Place of residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total outmigrants
		000s	
Urban[1]	2,281	524	2,805
Rural	550	226	776
Total inmigrants	**2,831**	**750**	**3,582**
Net internal migrants	26	-26	

1971 Place of residence	1976 Place of residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total outmigrants
		000s	
Urban	1,771	707	2,478
Rural	571	255	826
Total inmigrants	**2,342**	**962**	**3,304**
Net internal migrants	-136	136	

1976 Place of residence	1981 Place of residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total outmigrants
		000s	
Urban	2,786	863	3,649
Rural	607	256	863
Total inmigrants	**3,393**	**1,119**	**4,512**
Net internal migrants	-256	256	

1981 Place of residence	1986 Place of residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total outmigrants
		000s	
Urban	2,488	702	3,190
Rural	625	232	857
Total inmigrants	**3,113**	**935**	**4,048**
Net internal migrants	-77	77	

[1]1966-1971 data classified CMA rural population as urban.
Source: Field, Neil C. (1988) "Migration Through the Rural-Urban Hierarchy: Canadian Patterns," *Canadian Journal of Regional Science.*

urban population is projected to increase to 57% of the total population by 2025, up from 31% in 1985.

Rates of urbanization vary depending on a nation's development. For example, the Canadian experience of a slowing rate of urbanization is common to the more developed regions of the world (Europe, North America, Japan, Australia/New Zealand, and the USSR). This slowdown is to be expected because rural migrants have less scope to contribute to urban growth in countries that are already predominantly urban.

Over the past forty years, slowing in urbanization in the more developed regions has been accompanied by an overall drop in the rural population. Since 1975, Canada and the United States, however, have been exceptions to this pattern, as they have both experienced growing rural populations. Rural growth in Canada, however, has been consistently higher than in the United States during this period.

In contrast, urban population is still increasing sharply in the less developed regions. Between 1950 and 1985, growth rates of urban areas with populations greater than two million, were highest by far in the less developed regions. For example, the population in Mexico's largest urban areas grew by about 20% from 1980 to 1985, compared with a 3% increase in comparable areas in Canada and the United States.

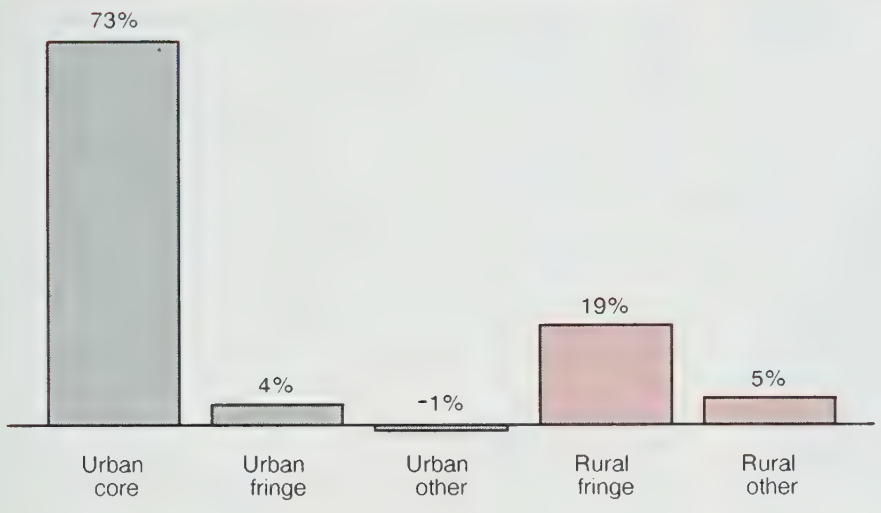
Nevertheless, the urban areas' share of population growth has been consistently higher in Canada than in the United States. Just two Canadian CMAs — Toronto and Montreal — have populations of more than two million. Between 1950 and 1985, these two Canadian urban areas have had a higher cumulative growth rate than their American counterparts. However, the gap has narrowed from over ten percentage points in earlier years, to just one point during 1980 to 1985.

[3] Based on United Nations data which accept the definitions used within each member nation. Population thresholds defining urban populations are generally higher than those used in Canada.

Both authors are with the Agriculture Division, Statistics Canada; **Brian Biggs** *is an analyst and* **Ray Bollman** *is a research economist.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

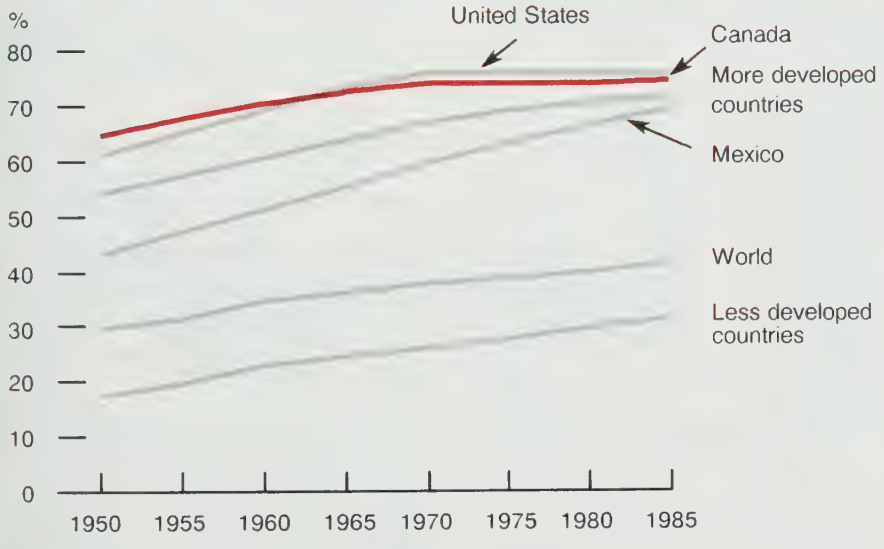
Nearly 3/4 of population growth 1981-1986 in urban cores



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Urban population distribution, by world area, 1950-1985



Source: United Nations, *Prospects of World Urbanization*, 1987.

THE MARKET RESEARCH HANDBOOK 1991



Brainstorming with your colleagues produces some great marketing ideas. But which ones will you use? The **Market Research Handbook 1991** can help you narrow your options before you commit anymore time and resources to developing your strategy.

This handbook is the most comprehensive statistical compendium on Canadian consumers and the businesses that serve them. It helps you to identify, define and locate your target markets.

Looking for . . .

. . . socio-economic and demographic profiles of 45 urban areas?

. . . revenue and expenditure data for retailers and small businesses?

The fastest way to get off to a good start !

The **Market Research Handbook 1991** has it all . . . and more. It provides information on:

- personal spending
- size and composition of households
- wages and salaries
- investment in Canadian industries
- labour force in various industries
- industry and consumer prices

It has been one of our bestsellers since 1977 for the simple reason that it offers such a range and depth of market data. Save time and money when you're looking for data or data sources, keep the **Market Research Handbook 1991** close at hand for easy reference.

The **Market Research Handbook 1991** (Cat. no. 63-224) is $94 (plus 7 % GST) in Canada, US$113 in the United States and US$132 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service fax your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES
Summer 1986 - Spring 1991

POPULATION

1986 Census Highlights	Summer	1987
1986 Census Highlights: Aging of the Canadian Population	Winter	1987
A Profile of Employed Migrants between Atlantic Canada and Ontario	Spring	1987
An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint Dependency Ratios Implications of an Aging Society	Spring	1991
Canada in the 21st Century	Summer	1986
Canada's Immigrant Population	Autumn	1989
Calgary: A Statistical Profile	Winter	1987
Changes in Fertility Among Canada's Linguistic Groups	Autumn	1988
Ethnic Origins of the Canadian Population	Summer	1989
Immigration	Autumn	1986
Immigration during the 1980s	Spring	1991
Interregional Migration of the Canadian Population	Autumn	1987
Language in Canada	Spring	1989
Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly" Population	Autumn	1988
Migration Between Atlantic Canada and Ontario, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
Profile of the Canadian Armed Forces	Winter	1989
Religious Affiliation in Canada	Autumn	1987
South Asians in Canada	Autumn	1989
The Demographic Future	Summer	1990
The Farm Community	Spring	1990
The Indo-Chinese in Canada	Autumn	1990
The Inner City in Transition	Spring	1990
The Inuit	Winter	1989
The Northern Population	Winter	1989
The Socio-demographic Conditions of Registered Indians	Winter	1986
Urban Canada	Winter	1987
Winnipeg	Spring	1990

FAMILY

1986 Census Highlights: Changes in Living Arrangements	Spring	1989
1986 Census Highlights: Marital Status	Spring	1988
Births to Unmarried Women	Summer	1986
Child Care	Summer	1986
Common-law: Living Together as Husband and Wife Without Marriage	Autumn	1986
Common-law Unions: Nearly Half a Million in 1986	Autumn	1988
Decline in the Number of Children	Autumn	1990
Divorce Rates in Canada	Winter	1988
Families: Diversity the New Norm	Summer	1986
Female Lone Parenthood: The Duration of Episodes	Autumn	1988
Household Chores	Spring	1990
Marrying and Divorcing: A Status Report for Canada	Summer	1989
Tying the Knot: An Overview of Marriage Rates in Canada	Autumn	1987
Women Parenting Alone	Winter	1987
Young Adults Living in Their Parents' Home	Summer	1989

HOUSING

Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form	Spring	1990
Forty Years of Social Housing in Toronto	Winter	1987
Home Improvement	Summer	1990
Home Ownership	Spring	1990
Mortgage Rates and the Housing Market	Winter	1986
People in Co-operative Housing	Autumn	1990
Shelter Costs	Spring	1990

LABOUR FORCE

1976 and 1982 Postsecondary Graduates: Selected Highlights of Their Labour Force Experience	Autumn	1987
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1990	Spring	1991
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989	Spring	1990
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1988	Spring	1989
Annual Review of Labour Force Trends	Autumn	1986
Annual Review of Labour Force Trends	Summer	1987
Annual Update on Labour Force Trends	Summer	1988
Changes in Women's Occupations	Autumn	1990
Employment of Disabled Canadians	Summer	1988
Employment of Humanities and Science Graduates	Summer	1989
Employment Patterns of Elderly Canadians	Autumn	1987
Increases in Long-term Unemployment	Spring	1987
Involuntary Part-time Employment in Canada, 1975-1985	Autumn	1987
Job Displacement	Spring	1988
Labour Force Trends: Canada and the United States	Autumn	1988
Labour Force Trends: Two Decades in Review	Autumn	1990
Maternity Leave	Autumn	1989
Regional Unemployment	Spring	1990
Secretaries	Summer	1990
Self-employment in Canada	Spring	1989
The Changing Industrial Mix of Employment, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline in Employment Among Men Aged 55-64, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline of Unpaid Family Work	Winter	1988
The Growth of Part-time Work	Autumn	1986
The Help-wanted Index	Spring	1988
The Labour Force Participation of Immigrants	Autumn	1986
The Law: A Changing Profession	Summer	1986
The Service Sector in the 1980s	Spring	1989
The Value of Household Work in Canada	Autumn	1986
Unemployment Rates for the Full-time and Part-time Labour Forces	Autumn	1987
Unionization in Canada	Spring	1988
Women in Male-dominated Professions	Winter	1987
Women in Professional Occupations: Progress in the 1980s	Spring	1989
Women Employed Outside the Home	Summer	1989
Work Injuries	Summer	1987

INCOME

Average Expenditure of Urban Canadians	Summer	1987
Children in Low-income Families	Winter	1986
Dual-earner Families: The New Norm	Spring	1989

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES - Concluded
Summer 1986 - Spring 1991

Income of Canada's Seniors	Autumn	1988
Losing Ground: Wages of Young People, 1981-1986	Summer	1989
Low Income in Canada	Spring	1987
The Decline of Real Family Income, 1980-1984	Winter	1986
Retirement Income Programs in Canada	Winter	1986

EDUCATION

A Select Few: Canada's Ph.D. Population	Winter	1988
Changes in Educational Attainment	Summer	1990
Community Colleges: An Alternative to Universities	Winter	1986
Computer Literacy	Winter	1990
Education in Canada: Selected Highlights	Autumn	1986
Educational Attainment of Linguistic Groups in Canada	Spring	1991
French Immersion	Autumn	1986
Foreign Students	Summer	1986
Foreign Students at Canadian Universities	Summer	1989
Low Educational Attainment in Canada, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
Part-time Adult Training	Winter	1988
Part-time University Enrolment	Summer	1987
Private Education	Summer	1986
Program Choices of Foreign University Students	Autumn	1989
Reading Skills	Winter	1990
University Enrolment in the 1980s	Winter	1989
Women in School Administration	Autumn	1990
Women Teaching at Canadian Universities	Summer	1988

HEALTH

Accidents	Summer	1990
AIDS in Canada	Summer	1988
Alcohol and Drug Use	Spring	1991
Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer and Life Expectancy	Winter	1988
Changing Health Risks	Summer	1986
Children with Disabilities	Winter	1990
Hospital Care in the 21st Century	Winter	1989
Increased Life Expectancy, 1921-1981	Summer	1987
Indian Mortality	Winter	1989
Lifestyle Risks: Smoking and Drinking in Canada	Spring	1987
Profile of Canadians with Disabilities	Autumn	1990
Residential Care	Autumn	1989
Seniors with Disabilities	Spring	1991
Sleep Patterns	Winter	1990
The Decline in Cardiovascular Disease Mortality	Autumn	1989
The Decline in Stroke Mortality	Autumn	1987
The Incidence of Sexually Transmitted Disease in Canada	Summer	1987
Therapeutic Abortion in Canada	Spring	1988
Trends in Cancer Since 1970	Summer	1988
Trends in Suicide	Winter	1988
What Canadians are Eating	Winter	1990

JUSTICE

Canada's Prison Population	Summer	1987
Compensation for Victims of Crime	Winter	1986
Drug Crimes	Spring	1991
Homicide	Summer	1990
Homicide in Canada	Winter	1987
Household Property Crimes	Spring	1990
Illegal Drug Use in Canada	Winter	1988
Impaired Driving Offences	Spring	1989
Legal Aid in Canada	Summer	1987
Perceptions of the Justice System	Winter	1990
Policing in Canada	Summer	1990
Trends in the Crime Rate in Canada, 1970-1985	Autumn	1986
Violence in the Family Family Homicide Male Violence in the Home	Autumn	1989
Violent Crime	Summer	1988
Violent Victimization	Summer	1990
Wife Abuse	Spring	1988
Young Offenders	Autumn	1990

CULTURE

Commuting Time	Winter	1990
Eating Out	Summer	1989
How Canadians Spend Their Day	Winter	1989
New Necessities: Popular Household Appliances	Autumn	1988
Passenger Traffic on Commercial Air Services	Spring	1988
Performing Arts	Winter	1990
Public Libraries	Winter	1989
Television Viewing	Autumn	1989
The Film Industry	Summer	1988
Time Use of the Elderly	Summer	1990
Travel Within Canada	Summer	1988

MISCELLANEOUS

Expanding the Choices	Summer	1986
Help Around the House: Support for Older Canadians	Autumn	1989
Loss of Prime Agricultural Land: The Example of Southern Ontario	Summer	1988
Lotteries in Canada	Autumn	1988
Private Transportation	Spring	1989
Public Opinion on Aboriginal Peoples' Issues in Canada	Winter	1988

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,223.2	26,584.0
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4
Immigration[1]	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	161,024	207,067
Emigration[1]	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,314	37,915
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572
- goods sector (000s)	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626
- services sector (000s)	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946
Total unemployment (000s)	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109
Unemployment rate (%)	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1
Part-time employment (%)	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4
Women's participation rate (%)	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	*
% of families with low income	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	9.6	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.7[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	831.9	865.3[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.8	5.6	5.5	5.3	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	*
- women	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	*
- women	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.7	6.0	5.8	5.8	5.8	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	692	714	749	808	856	898	950	*
- property	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,514	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.4[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1989 $000,000)	142,862.8	143,725.3	148,347.9	152,023.5	154,460.2	157,281.5	161,734.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.2	55.6	55.8	56.9	56.3	56.5	56.2	*
- as a % of GDP	27.3	26.2	26.1	26.3	25.6	24.8	24.8	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.0	+4.4	+3.0	+0.9
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0	4.8
Urban housing starts	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price	
		In Canada ($ Cdn.)	Elsewhere
62-555	Family Expenditure in Canada	$38.00	United States: US $46.00 Other countries: US $46.00
82-003s	Health Reports: Causes of Death	$30.00	--
82-003s	Health Reports: Hospital Morbidity	$15.00	--
82-003s	Health Reports: Mortality, Summary List of Causes	$25.00	--
82-003s	Health Reports: Surgical Procedures and Treatments	$15.00	--
89-520	A Portrait of Children in Canada	$40.00	United States: US $48.00 Other countries: US $56.00
91-210	Postcensal Annual Estimates of Population by Marital Status, Age, Sex and Components of Growth for Canada, Provinces and Territories	$29.00	United States: US $35.00 Other countries: US $41.00
91-520	Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1989-2011	$40.00	United States: US $48.00 Other countries: US $48.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Business and Industry

Cat. No. 31-203 - Manufacturing Industries of Canada: National and Provincial Areas ($61/US$73/US$85)

Cat. No. 61-218 - Canadian Business Patterns ($39/US$47/US$55)

Cat. No. 65-202 - Exports: Merchandise Trade ($166/US$199/$232)

Cat. No. 65-203 - Imports: Merchandise Trade ($166/US$199/US$232)

General

Cat. No. 11-612 - General Social Survey No.5 - Where Does Time Go? ($40/US$48/US$56)

Cat. No. 71-207 - Canada's Youth: A Profile of Their Labour Market Experiences ($12/US$14/US$17)

Cat. No. 91-534E - Sixty Years of Marriage in Canada ($38/US$46/US$53)

To those of you who need in-depth information about the labour market ...

... Statistics Canada introduces ***Labour Force Annual Averages 1990*** — a brand-new reference publication created specifically to meet those needs. With detailed data ... Quick-reference summaries and graphs ... Geographical breakdowns in unprecedented detail ... More variables and cross classifications than published in the monthly issues of *The Labour Force.*

The ***Labour Force Annual Averages 1990*** covers:

- time loss and absenteeism by industry and province;
- full-time and part-time employment by industry and province;
- occupations for Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) and economic regions;
- industries for CMAs and economic regions;
- labour market participation and family responsibilities by province;
- hours worked by industry and occupation, by sex, age and province;
- and more.

Labour Force Annual Averages 1990. Part and parcel of Statistics Canada's customer-driven approach to business information.



Labour Force Annual Averages 1990 (catalogue number 71-220) is available for $39 in Canada, US$47 in the United States and US$55 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. Or contact the Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre nearest you. (A list of centres appears in this publication.)

For faster service FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or Master Card.

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

Government Publications

11
-008

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E

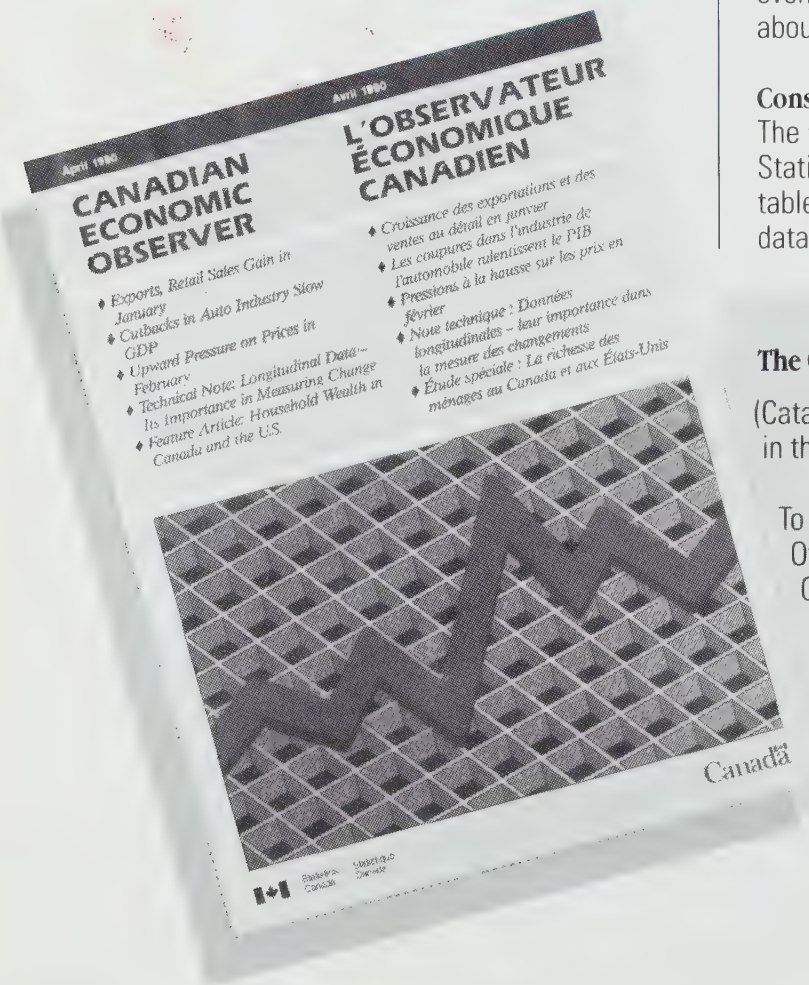


INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL ☐ RELIGION

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

No other monthly report on the Canadian Economy has this much to offer



Canadian Economic Observer
The most extensive and timely information source for people who want objective facts and analysis on the Canadian Economy... every month.

Current economic conditions
Brief, "to the point" a current update summary of the economy's performance including trend analyses on employment, output, demand and the leading indicator.

Feature articles
In-depth research on current business and economic issues: business cycles, employment trends, personal savings, business investment plans and corporate concentration.

Statistical summary
Statistical tables, charts and graphs cover national accounts, output, demand, trade, labour and financial markets.

Regional analysis
Provincial breakdowns of key economic indicators.

International overview
Digest of economic performance of Canada's most important trading partners — Europe, Japan and the U.S.

Economic and statistical events
Each month, CEO also publishes a chronology of current events that will affect the economy, and information notes about new products from Statistics Canada.

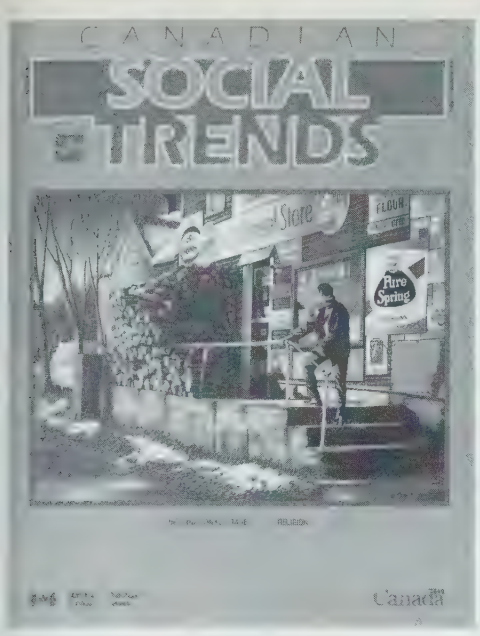
Consult with an expert
The names and phone numbers of the most appropriate Statistics Canada contacts are provided with each data table in the statistical summary; not only can you read the data and the analysis, you can talk to the experts about it.

The Canadian Economic Observer

(Catalogue no. 11-010) is $220 annually in Canada, US$260 in the United States and US$310 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistic Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

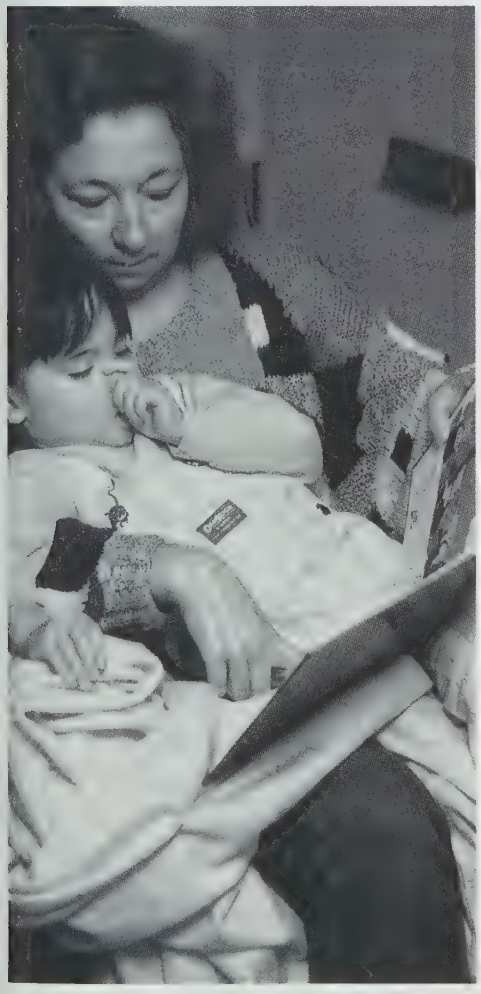
For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll free at 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.



Cover: ***Edgars Store*** (1981) oil on canvas, © Horst Guilhauman.

About the artist:

Born in West Germany (1936), **Horst Guilhauman** received his initial education in graphic arts in Germany. Mr. Guilhauman immigrated to Canada in 1967 and has established himself as a leading exponent of 'renouveau romantique' painting in Canada. His work is story-telling at its best, as he captures his subjects in their own intimate environment. He currently resides in Eganville, Ontario.



CONTENTS

No. 22 - AUTUMN 1991

Canadians Travelling Abroad 2
by Jillian Oderkirk

French Immersion Programs 8
by Kim Dietrich

Caring for Children 12
by Mary Anne Burke, Susan Crompton, Alison Jones and Katherine Nessner

Canada's Seniors 16
by Pierre Gauthier

Leaving the Fold: Declining Church Attendance 21
by Alain Baril and George A. Mori

Employment Equity 26
by Joanne Moreau

Cumulative Index, Autumn 1986-Summer 1991 29

Social Indicators 31

LIBRARY
SEP 2 3 1991
University of Toronto

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor-in-Chief	Craig McKie
Editors	Mary Anne Burke Jo-Anne B. Parliament
Assistant Editors	Pierre Gauthier Jillian Oderkirk
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Marketing Co-ordinator	Alex Solis
Writer/Researcher	Katherine Nessner

Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Ove Design
Illustrations and Photos	Health and Welfare Canada; Larry Gatz, Masterfile; Photo Centre, SSC; Cheryl Vincent
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor

Acknowledgements S. Blais, T. Briggs, C. Bronson, E. Cloutier, N.A. Giroux, A. Haman, M. Hickey, S. Jacklin, A. Jones, R. McDonald, C. Richard, M. Ricketts, M.P. Robert, M. Saint-Laurent, N. Turcotte, L. Verdon

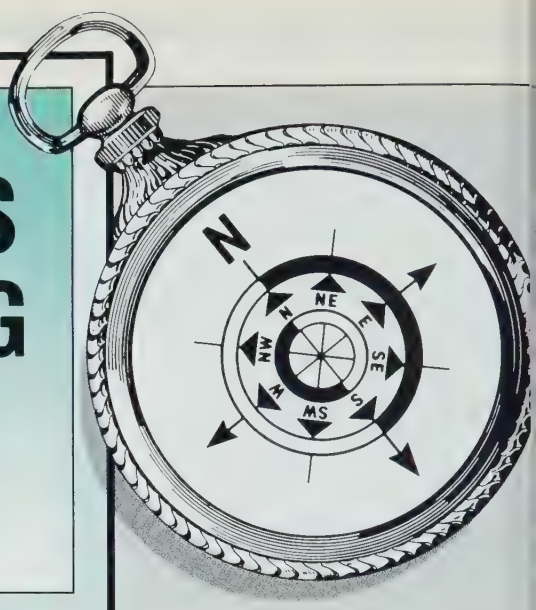
Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, nº 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Industry, Science and Technology. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1991, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor-in-Chief, **Canadian Social Trends**, 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the Minister of Supply and Services Canada. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

CANADIANS TRAVELLING ABROAD

by Jillian Oderkirk



Canadians are travelling internationally more often than ever before. Although most trips are taken to the United States, non-traditional destinations such as Japan and South America are becoming more popular. Day trips to the United States, in particular, have risen rapidly in recent years. Pleasure, recreation, or holiday is the purpose of most international travel.

Canadians travel more often to other countries, stay for longer periods of time, and spend more money than do foreign visitors to Canada. Spending differences have led to a large annual outflow of funds from the Canadian economy. This deficit will likely continue growing if the number of Canadians travelling internationally continues to increase faster than the number of foreign visitors to Canada.

Among Canadians, older and retired people travel the most, perhaps because they have more time or money available for travel. As this age group forms an increasing proportion of the population, the overall number of international trips is expected to increase.



International travel growing

During the 1980s, international travel by Canadian residents became more common, while travel to Canada declined. In 1990, Canadians took 74 million trips (2.8 per person) to destinations in the United States and overseas, more than twice the number of trips taken in 1980. In contrast, trips to Canada by foreign residents decreased 7% to 38 million. As a result, the number of Canadian trips to foreign countries in 1990 was almost double the number of trips to Canada. This was a reversal of the travel pattern earlier in the decade. In 1980, trips to Canada exceeded those out of the country by 11%.

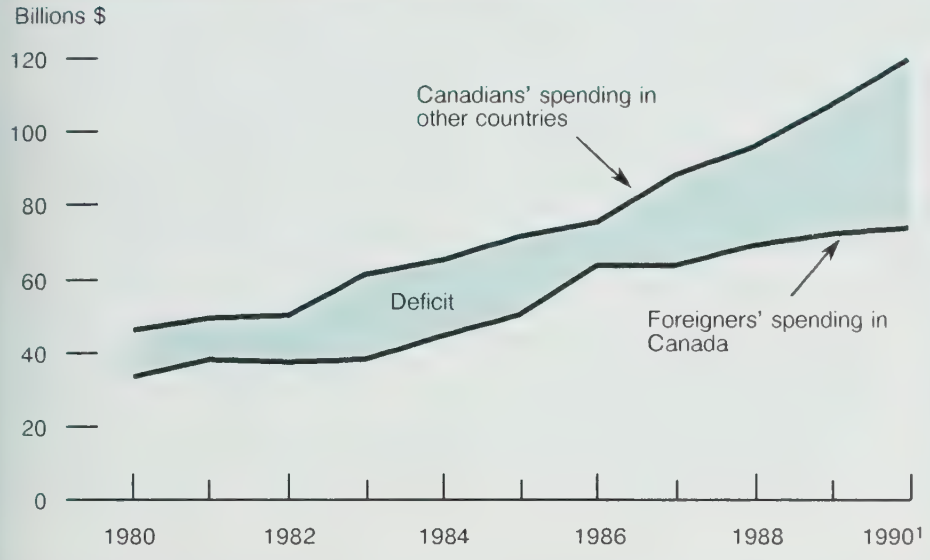
Travel deficit growing

Canadians are spending increasingly more money outside of the country than foreign residents are spending in Canada. In 1990, Canadian international travellers spent $12 billion abroad, $4.5 billion more than was brought into the country by foreign visitors. Furthermore, this travel deficit almost quadrupled over the decade, rising from $1.2 billion in 1980.

A travel deficit is not necessarily a sign of poor economic health, because like people in other western countries with a large travel deficit, such as the former West Germany and Japan, Canadians enjoy a high standard of living and are able to travel.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

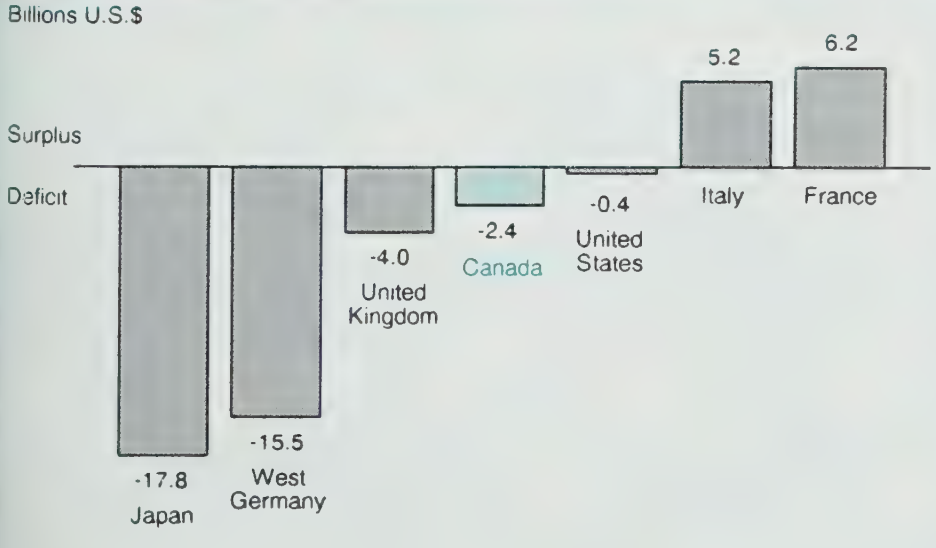
Canadian travel deficit, 1980-1990



[1] 1990 data are preliminary.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 66-201.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Travel deficits and surpluses, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 66-201.

Most overnight travel is leisure

The majority of Canadian overnight travellers to international destinations are tourists. In 1989, 58% of all overnight travellers gave leisure (pleasure, recreation, or holiday) as the major reason for their trip.[1] Throughout the decade, leisure travel accounted for about 56% of international trips.

Other major reasons given for overnight travel to international destinations include visiting friends and relatives, and business. Throughout the 1980s, visiting friends and relatives accounted for about 24% of international trips, while business travel accounted for about 11%.

Domestic leisure travel declining

In contrast to the increasing prevalence of international leisure travel, such travel within Canada declined during the 1980s. From 1980 to 1989, overnight leisure trips taken by Canadians to international destinations increased 53%. Over roughly the same period, the number of overnight leisure trips taken by Canadians within the country declined 6% to 24 million.

Rising travel costs within Canada likely contributed to the increase in the number of tourists heading out of the country. The cost of travel within Canada, adjusted for inflation, rose 81% from 1980 to 1989 according to the travel price index, which includes accommodation, transportation, food and beverage, and other travel costs. The corresponding increase within the United States was just 57%.

The increase in the cost of air transportation within Canada was almost double that of international flights. From the second quarter of 1983 to the second quarter of 1990, an average fare between two Canadian cities increased 57%, compared with a 32% increase in the fare from a Canadian city to one outside the country. Similarly, discount fares rose 51% within Canada, but just 27% for international destinations.

[1] Detailed breakdown for 1990 not yet available.

Travel to the U.S. dominates

The United States is the most popular destination for Canadian international travellers, accounting for 96% of all international trips in 1990. This is not surprising, given that most of Canada's population is concentrated near the U.S. border.

Canadian travellers go to the United States in greater numbers every year for its warmer climate, varied attractions, and lower prices. Retail gasoline prices, in particular, are much lower in the United States than in Canada, making automobile travel more attractive. Also, the opportunity to shop on Sunday draws people from provinces with Sunday shopping restrictions.

From 1987 to 1990, the United States became even more attractive to Canadians because the value of the Canadian dollar improved relative to the U.S. dollar. During this period, the number of trips taken by Canadians grew rapidly, while travel by Americans to Canada declined.

Rapid growth in U.S. day trips

The number of day trips to the United States has been rising rapidly. In 1990, Canadians took 53 million trips (200 for every 100 Canadians) of less than 24 hours to the United States, a 90% increase from 1980. Most of this growth occurred from 1987 to 1990. On the other hand, Americans took just 22 million day trips (9 for every 100 Americans) to Canada, a decrease of 18% since 1980.

Canadians travelling to the United States for the day spent $557 million overall in 1989. This was more than the $388 million American same-day travellers spent in Canada. However, Americans spent more per trip than did Canadians: $17 versus $13.

Overnight travel to U.S. up

Canadians also took more overnight trips to the United States during the 1980s than Americans took to Canada. In 1990, 17 million overnight trips (65 for every 100 Canadians) to the United States were taken, an increase of 54% from 1980. Again, growth was concentrated from 1987 to 1990. Americans travelling to Canada in 1990 took just 12 million trips (5 for every 100 Americans), an increase of 12% from 1980; however, from 1987 to 1989, small annual declines occurred.

The difference between the travel patterns of Americans and Canadians becomes magnified when the length of the trip is considered. Each year during the 1980s, the average Canadian overnight trip to the United States lasted over seven nights, while American trips to Canada averaged fewer than five nights.

Overall, Canadian overnight travellers also spend more money in the United States than Americans spend in Canada. In 1989, Canadians spent $5.1 billion, while American overnight travellers spent $3.6 billion in Canada. However, Americans spent more per night than Canadians: $67 compared with $45.

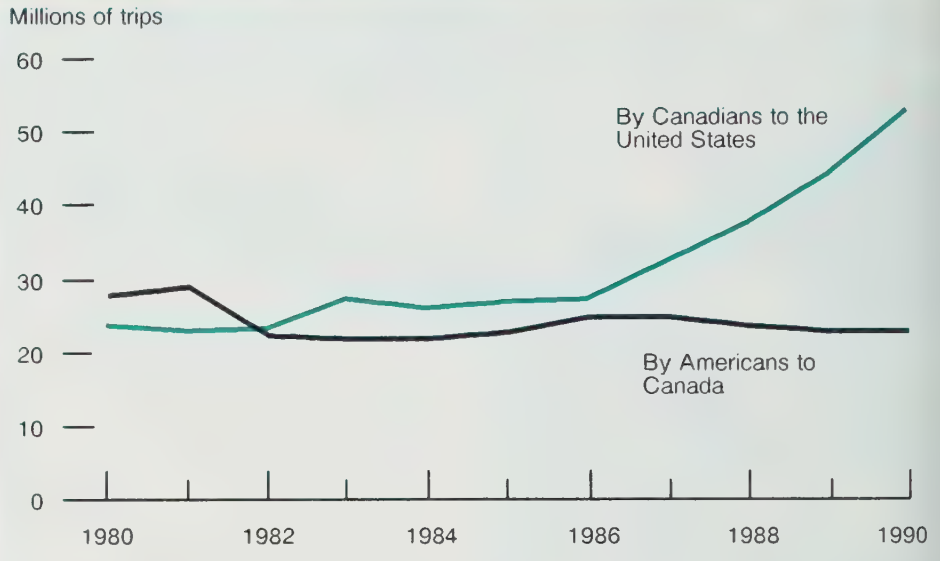
Border states and sun-spots most popular

The most popular destinations of overnight travellers to the United States are border states and sun-spots. In 1989, New York was the most visited state (14% of all visits of one or more nights), followed by Florida (10%), Washington (9%), Michigan (6%), Maine (5%), and California (4%).

Canadians, however, spend more nights in Florida than in any other state, and its popularity has been increasing. In 1989, there were almost five times as many nights spent in Florida (43 million) as in California, the state with the second longest overnight stays. From 1980 to

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

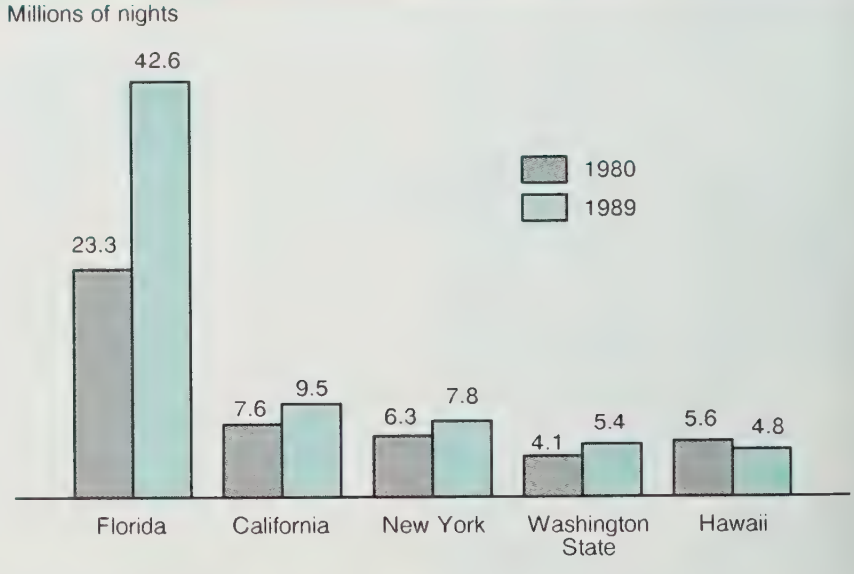
Same-day travel to United States increasing



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 66-201.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian travellers spend most nights in Florida



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 66-201.

Florida snowbirds[1]

In 1989, 16% of all visits to Florida were made by Canadian seniors aged 65 and older. These seniors are often referred to as seasonal migrants, or snowbirds, rather than tourists, because of the length of their visits.

A survey of seasonal migrants to Florida was conducted in February 1986 by Victor Marshall, Department of Behavioral Sciences, University of Toronto and colleagues from the University of Miami and the University of South Florida. Questionnaires were mailed to 4,500 anglophone subscribers of *Canada News*, a Florida-based weekly paper, and were completed by 61% of those surveyed.

Of the snowbirds surveyed, 76% were retired and had the time available for long visits. In 1986, the typical snowbird visit lasted almost six months, beginning in November and ending in May. This duration gave seniors a break from the Canadian winter without jeopardizing their access to Canadian medical care insurance (six month residency in Canada is required for continued entitlement). According to the survey, 64% of seniors reported limiting their time spent outside of Canada to maintain eligibility for this insurance.

Living arrangements of snowbirds in Florida varied in 1986. Fifty-six percent lived in mobile home communities, 22% in condominiums, 15% in single-residence homes, and 5% in rented apartments. Three-quarters of snowbirds owned their own residence in Florida.

Most snowbirds (90%) were married and living with their spouse. Spousal ties may be important given the separation from other family members migration to Florida often presents. When in Canada, 60% of snowbirds have children living within 80 km of their home, but in Florida only 2% of seniors have children living that close to them. Many seniors compensate for the loss of family contact by forming friendships. In Florida, over 70% of seniors have one or more close friends living nearby, and the same percentage reported close friends among Florida's permanent residents.

[1] Tucker, R.D., Marshall, V.W., Longino Jr., C.F., and Mullins, L.C. (1988). "Older Anglophone Canadian Snowbirds in Florida: A Descriptive Profile". *Canadian Journal on Aging*, 7:3, 218-232.

1989, Florida accounted for an increasing share of all nights spent in the United States, rising to 37% from 28%.

At the same time, overall expenditure in Florida also increased. In 1989, 29% of all annual Canadian spending in the United States was in Florida, up from 24% in 1980.

Overseas travel growing

Although the United States remains the most popular international destination for Canadians, overseas travel has been growing. From 1980 to 1990, the number of overnight trips to international destinations other than the United States doubled to 3.2 million trips (12 for every 100 Canadians). This exceeded the 54% increase in the volume of overnight travel to the United States.

Particularly rapid growth in overseas travel occurred between 1983 and 1987, when the value of the Canadian dollar increased compared to major world currencies. During this period, the number of trips grew annually by about 15% with one exception: in 1986, the year of the World Exhibition in Vancouver, the number of international trips remained constant.

Similarly, more overseas travellers are visiting Canada. In 1990, they took 3.3 million overnight trips to Canada, an increase of 51% from 1980. Most of this growth occurred from 1986 to 1988. The



majority of overseas travellers to Canada came from the United Kingdom, Japan, Germany, and France.

Although the number of overseas trips taken by Canadians is roughly equal to the number of trips taken by overseas visitors to Canada, the average length of trips by Canadians is longer. From 1980 to 1989, the average trip taken by a Canadian to an overseas destination lasted about three weeks; however, during the same period, residents of overseas countries stayed in Canada an average of just two weeks. During their stay, Canadians spent more money in foreign countries than foreign residents spent in Canada. In 1989, Canadians spent $3 billion abroad, while overseas visitors spent $2 billion in Canada.

Non-traditional destinations rising

Most Canadians travelling overseas went to Continental Europe (26% of all trips), the United Kingdom (14%), and Bermuda and the Caribbean (20%); however, other destinations are growing in popularity. From 1980 to 1989, the number of trips taken to South America increased six times to 6% of all 1989 overseas trips. Trips to Asia and Central America tripled, accounting for 6% and 0.6% of all overseas travel, respectively.

Although more trips were taken to Continental Europe than to the United Kingdom, more nights were spent in the United Kingdom than in any other location. Each year from 1980 to 1989, between 18% and 24% of all overseas nights were spent there; France ranked second with 8% to 10% of all nights.

People aged 45-64 travel most

Canadians aged 45-64 are the most active travellers. In 1989, 114 international trips of one or more nights were taken for every 100 people aged 45-64. Seniors aged 65 and over and people aged 20-44 were the next most frequent international travellers with 73 trips for every 100 people in these age groups.

Canadians aged 45 and over tend to have higher incomes and/or more time available to travel than do other people. In 1989, the average income of families whose heads were aged 45-54 was $60,000, higher than that of any other age group. Also, although most people aged 45-54 are still employed, they tend to have the necessary number of years of service with an employer to attain longer vacations. In the mid-1980s, 62% of office employees and 56% of non-office employees were offered four weeks of paid vacation after 10 or more years of service to their employer.

Families with heads aged 55-59 had an average income of $54,000, also exceeding the national average ($49,000), while the average income of those aged 60-64 was $36,000. People aged 55 and over tend to be not employed, potentially leaving them with more time available for travel. In 1989, 75% of people aged 55 and over were not employed.

Increased travelling among seniors

Seniors' participation in international travel increased the most from 1980 to 1989. During this period, the number of international trips taken for every 100 people aged 65 and over climbed 50%. The increase among people aged 45-64 was 41%, while a 15% increase occurred among adults aged 20-44.

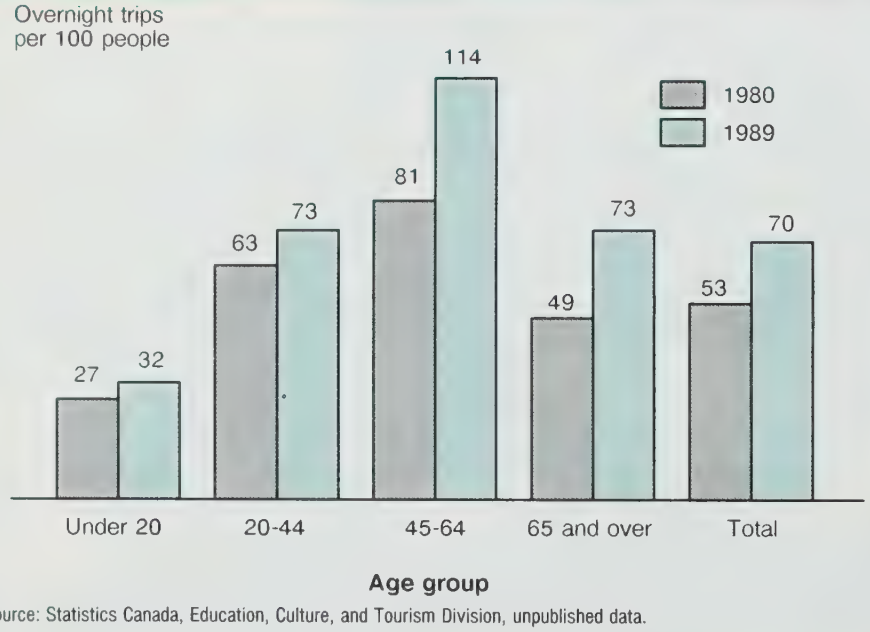
International travel during the 1980s may have been more affordable than before because of several economic and demographic changes, such as increases in real family incomes and decreases in family size. From 1980 to 1983, the economy experienced a recession and the average income of families, adjusted for inflation, declined 5%; however, since then, real family incomes increased 11% to reach $49,000 in 1989. From 1980 to 1989, average family size declined to 3.1 people from 3.3, and the average number of children under 18 in families declined to 0.9 from 1.1, potentially reducing family expenses.

Men travel more

During the 1980s, men travelled more often than women to destinations both in the United States and overseas. In 1989, 73 international overnight trips were taken for every 100 men, while 67 trips were taken for every 100 women. An even greater difference existed between the

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

International travel most common among Canadians aged 45-64



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture, and Tourism Division, unpublished data.

Canada's place in the sun?

During the 1970s, and again in 1987, proposals were made to consider forming an economic and political link with the Turks and Caicos Islands, a small semi-autonomous British colony consisting of eight islands and 40 small cays scattered between the Dominican Republic and the Bahamas. In 1987, the Turks and Caicos Development Organization expressed an interest in forming a relationship with Canada which would have allowed both countries to retain their independence. Canadians would have gained a vacation and retirement destination where they could have spent Canadian dollars.

The 1987 proposal was studied by both a informal committee of members of the House of Commons and the Standing Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs. The determination was that it was inappropriate to take action on this issue. In 1988, an estimated 4,100 Canadians visited the Islands, up from approximately 2,200 in 1986.



travel rates of men and women aged 55 and over. In 1989, 107 international trips were taken for every 100 men aged 55 and over, while 80 trips were taken for every 100 women of this age.

Although men travelled more often than women, the difference decreased during the 1980s. The travel rate for women was 9% less than that for men in 1989, compared with a 14% gap in 1980.

The disparity between travel rates of men and women may be linked to differences in employment and income. In 1989, business trips accounted for 18% of the overnight international trips taken by men, compared with just 6% of trips taken by women. Men also tend to have higher incomes, and hence more financial resources available for international travel, than do women. In 1989, the average income of an unattached man was $23,000, compared with $18,000 for an unattached woman.

Most travellers from Ontario and British Columbia

Residents of provinces with higher per capita incomes are most likely to travel internationally. Also, travel is more common among residents of provinces with major cities located near the U.S. border. In 1989, the most frequent overnight travellers to the United States were from British Columbia (83 trips for every 100 residents), Manitoba (77), and Ontario (71). On the other hand, the Atlantic provinces had the lowest travel rate, with just 30 trips to the United States for every 100 residents. The most frequent overseas travellers, for every 100 residents of each province, were from Ontario (16), Quebec (11), and British Columbia (11). In 1989, residents of Saskatchewan travelled overseas the least, taking just four trips per 100 residents.

Neighbourhood travel patterns

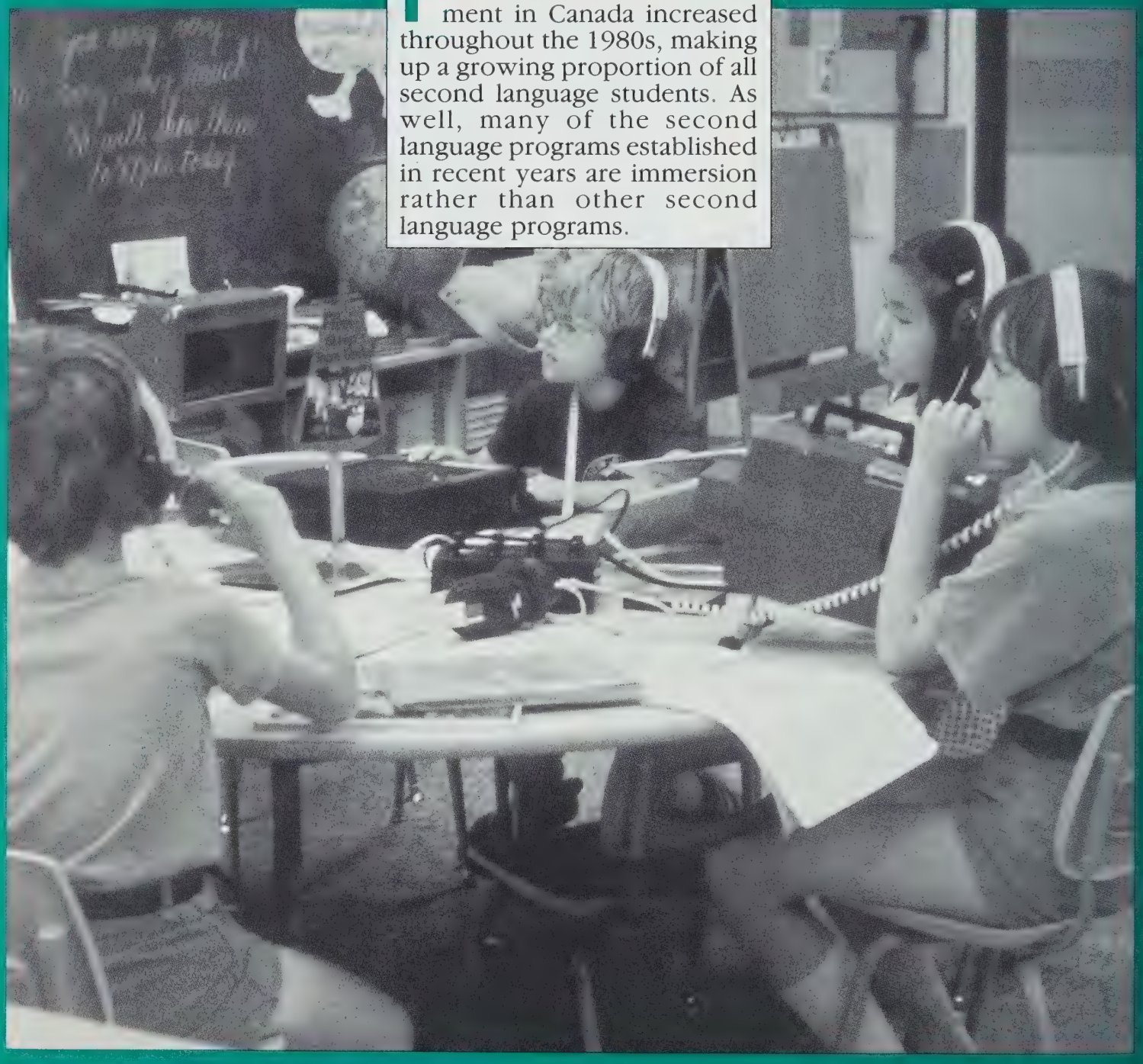
People from neighbourhoods with large concentrations of allophones (people whose mother tongue is neither English nor French) were more likely than other Canadians to travel overseas. According to the Canadian Travel Survey and the Census, 16% of the trips taken by people from these neighbourhoods in 1986 were to overseas destinations, while such travel represented just 1% to 7% of the trips taken by people from other neighbourhoods.

Jillian Oderkirk *is an Assistant Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

FRENCH IMMERSION PROGRAMS

by Kim Dietrich

French immersion enrolment in Canada increased throughout the 1980s, making up a growing proportion of all second language students. As well, many of the second language programs established in recent years are immersion rather than other second language programs.



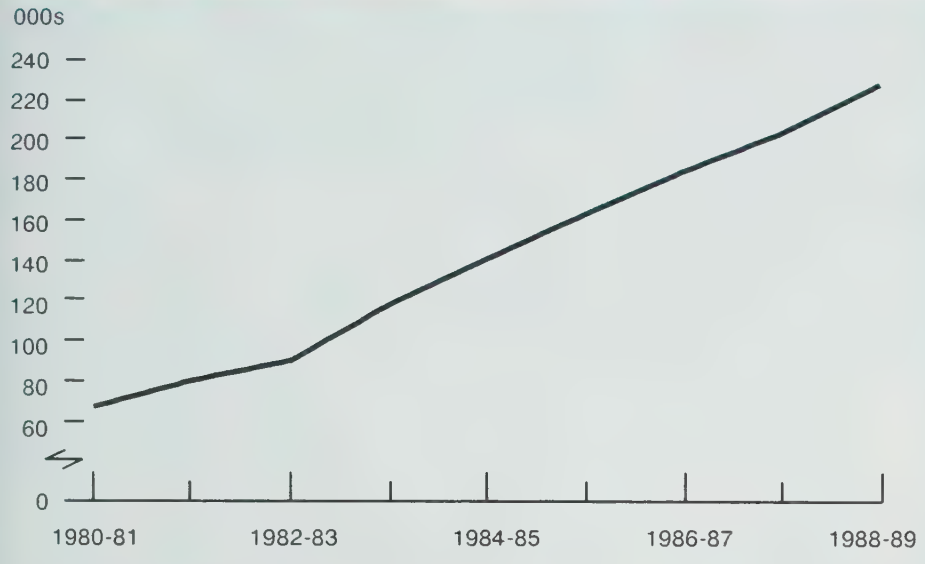
Immersion programs allow students to develop high levels of skill and confidence in French. As well, immersion students are more likely to become bilingual than those in a regular second language program, although native fluency cannot necessarily be expected.

Second language instruction

In French immersion programs, students learn French by receiving 25% or more of their daily instruction in French. In regular second language programs, students take French as one of their subjects for less than 25% of the school day. Immersion generally starts at one of three entry points: early (Kindergarten or Grade 1), middle (Grade 4), or late (Grade 6 or 7). Second language acquisition does not appear to depend on when a student enters the program. Researchers at a 1989 conference on "Bilingualism, Multiculturalism and Second Language Learning" at McGill University emphasized that no one starting point can be singled out as "the best for all children".[1]

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Students enrolled in French immersion, 1980-81 to 1988-89[1]



[1] Data for Alberta are not available prior to 1983-84.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

French immersion enrolment as a percentage of second language enrolment, 1980-81 to 1988-89[1]



[1] Data for Alberta are not available prior to 1983-84.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257.

Immersion enrolment

Public school enrolment declined during the first half of the 1980s, coincident with the decrease in the school-age population, before resuming its upward trend in 1985-86. In contrast, French immersion enrolment maintained a steady rate of increase throughout the decade. By 1988-89, it had more than tripled, reaching 228,000 students nationwide. That year, immersion students made up 12% of enrolment in second language programs, up from 5% in 1980-81.

More schools offer immersion

The number of public schools offering French immersion programs has also continued to rise. By 1988-89, 1,744 or 16% of public schools (excluding French schools for francophones) offered the program, up from about 3% of schools in 1980-81. The provinces with the greatest availability of French immersion were New Brunswick (37% of schools) and Prince Edward Island (34%). At the other end of the scale, only 6% of public schools in Newfoundland and 7% in Saskatchewan offered French immersion programs.

Participation increasing

Students are now more likely than in the past to be enrolled in French immersion programs. Between 1980-81 and 1988-89, participation in French immersion increased to 6% from 2% of eligible students (non-francophone students).

Participation in French immersion is much higher in elementary than in secondary schools. In 1988-89, 10% of eligible elementary students in Canada were enrolled in French immersion programs, up from 3% in 1980-81. The participation rate for secondary students, still relatively low at 3% in 1988-89, was about seven times greater than it had been 1980-81.

Provincial variations

Throughout the 1980s, increases in participation in French immersion programs were relatively uniform across the provinces, although considerable provincial differences still exist. In 1988-89, New Brunswick (18%) and Prince Edward Island (13%) had the largest proportions of students enrolled in French immersion programs. Participation was lowest in

[1] Commissioner of Official Languages Annual Report, Catalogue SF1-1989, Minister of Supply and Services Canada.



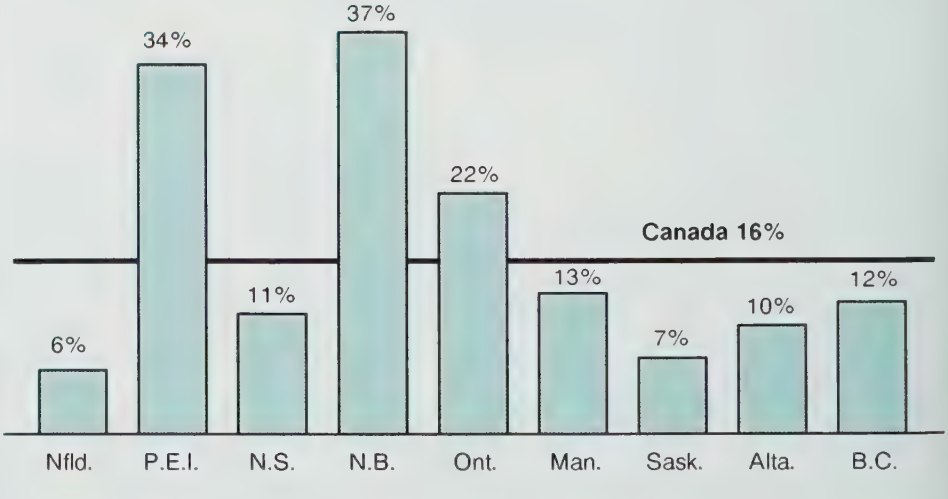
Second language instruction in Quebec

English language education in Quebec is compulsory in Grades 4 through 11, but is relatively uncommon in earlier grades. Generally, English is taught as one of a student's subjects, and English immersion programs do not exist in Quebec. However, some school boards in Quebec offer an intensive English language program to students in Grades 5 and 6, where students study all their subjects in English for five months. In 1988, 21 school boards offered this program. Testing revealed that students in the program outperformed those in traditional language programs in fluency and other measures of their English skills. However, it has not yet been determined if there are detriments to learning the other subjects over the five-month program.

French immersion is offered in Quebec, and in 1988-89, 20% of non-francophone public school students were enrolled in these programs.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Schools offering French immersion,[1] by province, 1988-89



[1] Includes schools offering combinations of immersion and other French programs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257.

Bilingualism

The proportion of Canadians able to conduct a conversation in both English and French has been increasing since 1961. In 1986, 16% of all Canadians were bilingual, up from 13% in 1971 and 12% in 1961.

In 1986, the highest rates of bilingualism in Canada were in Quebec, where 35% of the people were bilingual and in New Brunswick (29%). Only 3% of those in Newfoundland and 5% in Saskatchewan were bilingual.

French immersion success

Few data exist about the success of French immersion programs. However, in Manitoba, where such programs have been in place since 1974, research is ongoing. In 1989, the Planning, Research and Policy Coordination Branch of the Manitoba government surveyed 354 French immersion students who had graduated in 1989. Responses were received from 225 (64%) of those surveyed.

Although the findings of this study are not conclusive, most students (60%) reported that they would strongly recommend the program to others and that most would have little difficulty performing various everyday social or business activities in French. The only activities cited as difficult were writing a formal letter of business (18%) or conducting everyday business in French (15%).

Of those employed at the time of the survey, 59% said that French was an asset for their job and another 8% said that it was required. On the other hand, 29% found no use for their French skills on the job. At the same time, 40% of those surveyed said that they rarely (once a month) used their French skills on the job. Only 10% reported using French on a daily basis.

Concerns

The effect of French immersion on students' basic English skills is a major concern among parents and educators. The Ontario Ministry of Education, in "French Immersion Research Relevant to Decisions in Ontario", stated that by the fourth or fifth grade, students in French immersion performed as well on English proficiency tests as students in regular French programs. There is concern, however, that the tests measure neither fluency in English nor degree of literary creativity.

Another area of concern is the French immersion student's general progress in subjects taught in French. Research conducted for the Ontario Ministry of Education has not found any difference between students of regular and French immersion programs in achievement in mathematics or content subjects.

Parents and educators are also concerned about how well students retain their French skills after leaving immersion programs. As of yet, relatively little attention has been focused on retention of French language skills. It is well known, however, that without constant exposure to and use of a language, one's ability diminishes. One study[1] found that immersion provided students with a useful foundation for further learning in French outside of the immersion program.

Need for continual study

A 1988 study by the Carleton Board of Education (Nepean, Ontario) found that French immersion had grown to the extent that it was having major impacts on regular programs.

The partitioning of the student population into different programs had some effects on both students of French immersion and of regular programs. Students in each program suffered a loss of a sense of belonging to a neighbourhood. A reduction of staff morale was found among staff of regular programs, and some difficulty existed in staffing positions. Regular programs also had to accommodate French immersion dropouts and students with poor attitudes toward learning French. As well, there was a tendency for French immersion students to not complete the program.

Continual study, discussion, and planning of French immersion programs are necessary to determine the desired outcomes for students of French immersion. As well, it is necessary to continue to examine the ability and achievement of students involved in this type of education, and to maintain a balance between the goals and objectives of regular and French immersion programs.

[1] Morrison, F., and Pawley, C., *French Proficiency of Immersion Students at the Grade 12 Level*. Eleventh Annual Report to the Ministry of Education, Part I. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1986.

Nova Scotia and Newfoundland (3% in each province).

French immersion funding

Acting on the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism in 1970, the federal government agreed to provide financial support to the provinces to initiate, develop and maintain bilingual programs in education. Until 1982-83, federal financial assistance provided to the provincial governments was based on average provincial education costs and enrolment levels. Federal support programs for specific provincial activities and initiatives also existed. However, in 1982-83, important changes took place in the way French immersion programs were funded. As of that year, federal funding provided to the provinces for French immersion programs was based on full-time equivalents. Each province has its own criteria for funding at the provincial level.

Elementary students are considered full-time equivalents if they are enrolled in an immersion program with 75% or more of the instruction in French. For secondary students, 60% of instruction must be in the second language. For Kindergarten programs, where students' instruction time consists of half that of regular programs, a student is considered half of a full-time equivalent.

For 1990-91, the federal government provided $170 per elementary full-time equivalent and $264 per secondary full-time equivalent. These amounts increased from $167 and $259, respectively, in 1988-89.

The amount of funding provided by the federal government for regular second language programs is much lower than that provided for immersion. In 1990-91, the amount given for each second language program full-time equivalent was $98 at the elementary level and $144 at the secondary level.

Kim Dietrich *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.



CARING FOR CHILDREN

by Mary Anne Burke, Susan Crompton, Alison Jones and Katherine Nessner

The increase in the number of employed women with children and of children being raised in families with just one parent has created a need for alternatives to the "stay-at-home" mother form of child care.

Such care can be provided in many forms, from licensed day care centres and licensed family care homes, to care provided in structured activities, such as nursery schools, kindergartens and before- and after-school programs, to private care by a nanny, neighbour or relative. Most parents in need of child care services turn to informal, privately arranged types of care, as opposed to formal day care settings. The charges for such unlicensed care may sometimes fall outside of normal business practices and form part of the so-called "underground economy". For the most part, this kind of care is less expensive than care in a licensed space, unless a family is able to obtain a licensed space with fees subsidized by the government. Informal care also tends to be used more for short-term care than is licensed care.

In 1990, there were more than 1.3 million preschoolers (under age 6) and 1.7 million school-age children (aged 6-12) whose mothers were in the labour force. Thus, as many as 3 million children may have been in need of alternate child care arrangements, up from 2.6 million in 1985, and 1.4 million in 1971.

However, in 1990, there were just 321,000 licensed spaces, up from 298,000 in 1985, 109,000 in 1980 and just 17,000 in 1971. Only a fraction of children in need of alternate forms of care were in licensed spaces in 1990. That year, just 18% of preschool children with mothers in the labour force were in licensed family or centre day care full-time, up from 17% in 1989 and 4% in 1981.

Day care spaces

Throughout the 1980s, the majority of licensed spaces were for young children. In 1990, 178,000 spaces or 55% of licensed spaces were for three- to five-year-olds. An additional 47,000 spaces (15%) were reserved for children under three years of age, down from 50,212 in 1989. Care for children under three represents a high-cost, labour-intensive care which can cost parents as much as one-third more than the cost for an older child.

Nonetheless, there has been a shift towards licensed spaces for older children. In 1990, there were 96,000 spaces for children aged 6-12, up from 75,000 in 1989, and 38,000 in 1985. As of 1990, school-age day care accounted for 30% of spaces, up from 25% in 1989 and 20% in 1985.

These were not distributed evenly by province, however. In 1990, almost one-third of spaces reserved for school-age children were in Quebec. In large part, this is because 29,000 spaces in Quebec were operated under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

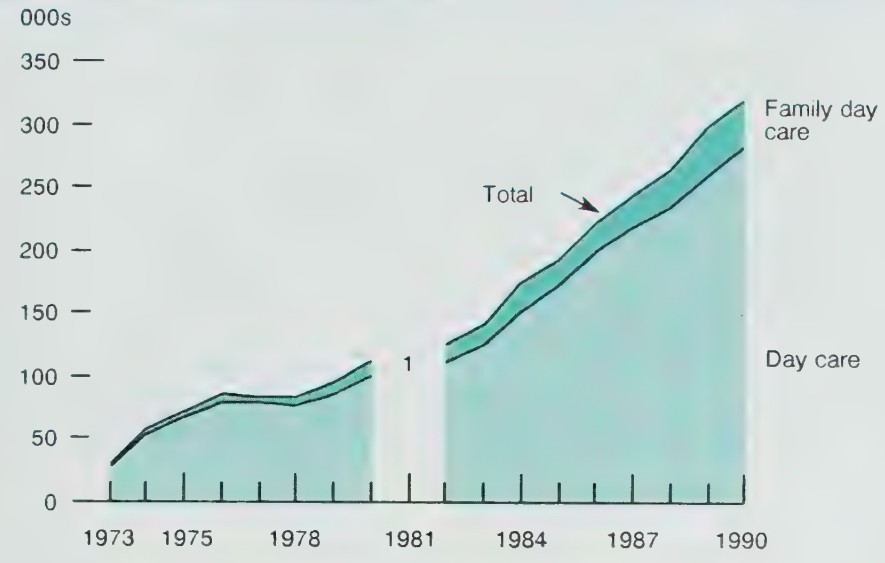
The majority of licensed spaces were in day care centres rather than in family care (88% versus 12%) in 1990. Family day care homes, however, provide a large proportion of the care for infants and toddlers. In 1990, 47% of infants aged 0-17 months in licensed spaces were in family care, as were 27% of children aged 18-35 months.

In 1990, 66% of day care centres were non-profit, up from 65% in 1989. The remainder were commercial. This is a dramatic shift from the situation two decades earlier. In 1968, 75% of all day care spaces were under commercial auspices.

The pattern differed, however, in Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island and Alberta. In these provinces, commercial day care centres provided most of the available spaces in 1990 (74%, 54% and 63%, respectively).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

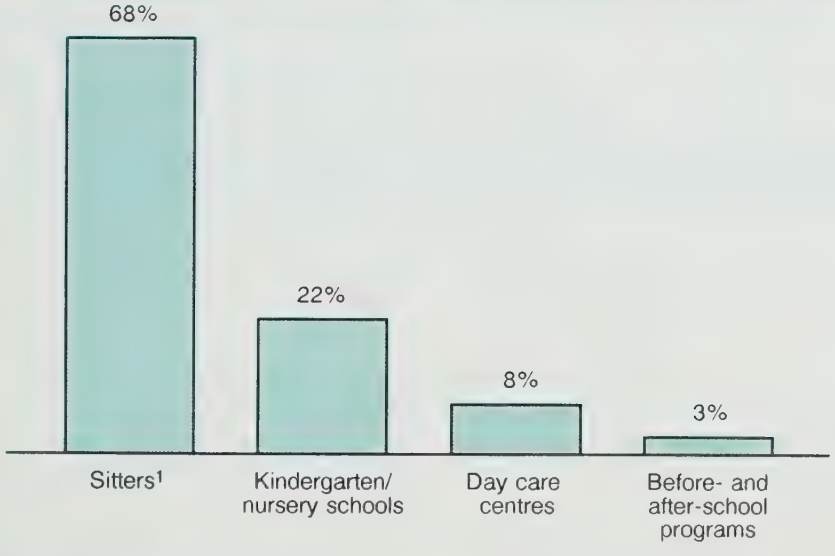
Licensed day care spaces, 1973-1990[1]



[1] No data available for 1981.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, National Day Care Information Centre.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Distribution of children in non-parental child care arrangements, 1988[1]



[1] Includes licensed family day care homes.
Source: Statistics Canada, National Child Care Survey.

Sitter care[1]

Sitters were the most common type of child care arrangement reported by parents in 1988. According to the National Child Care Survey (NCCS), sitters accounted for 68% of non-parental child care arrangements, compared with just 8% for day care centres. An estimated 1,104,000 children under age 13, 58% of whom were under age 6, had been left in the care of a sitter, while their parents worked. Approximately 12% of these children came from lone-parent families. An additional 710,000 children had been left in the care of a sitter, while their parents carried out activities other than work.

Care by relatives

While most children in the care of a sitter while their parents worked (62%) were looked after by someone outside the family, relatives were called upon by many parents to assist with the care of their children. This was particularly so in families with low incomes. In 1988, 43% of children in families with incomes of $50,000 or less were cared for by a relative, compared with 29% of children in families with incomes over $50,000. That figure rose to 49% among families with incomes of $20,000 or less, compared with 25% of children in families in the highest income bracket.

Grandparents, followed by aunts and uncles, were the most common relatives

[1] Includes licensed family home care.



to be used as sitters. In 1988, 22% of children in the care of a sitter while their parents worked were cared for by their grandparents, and another 8% by aunts and uncles. The proportion of children in the care of their grandparents, and aunts and uncles varied by income.

Hours in care

Children in day care centres averaged more time in care than did those in the care of a sitter. According to the NCCS, children in day care spent an average of 31 hours per week in care, compared with 20 hours per week for those in the care of a sitter.

Many children, however, spent just a few hours each day before and/or after school in the care of a sitter. Parents reported that 21% of children were left in the care of a sitter less than 5 hours each week, while another 20% were reported to be in the care of a sitter 5 to 10 hours each week. However, 59% of children were left with a sitter more than 10 hours each week, 140,000 (16%) of whom were left with a sitter more than 40 hours each week.

Children in families with high incomes were more likely to be left in care, either at a day care or with a sitter, than were children in families with lower incomes. Children in families with incomes over $50,000 were slightly more likely than those in lower income families to spend more than 30 hours each week at day care. However, 34% of children in families with incomes ranging from $20,000 to $30,000 spent over 40 hours each week in day care.

According to the survey, 17% of children in families with incomes over $70,000 in the care of a sitter were left for more than 40 hours each week, compared with 13% of those in families with incomes of $20,000 or less.

Expenses on child care

According to the NCCS, only 6% of children in day care centres cost their families more than $100 each week, and in most of these cases, no more than $125 each week. Another 5% cost their parents nothing at all, most likely because their families were subsidized. Of the remaining 89%, payments ranged from $1-$50 each week for one half, and from $51-$100 each week for the other half.

Expenditures for children from families with lower incomes were generally less than those from higher income families. Many children in families with incomes of $50,000 or less were cared for in centres with a direct cost of no more than $50 each week. In fact, 12% of children from families reporting income of $30,000 or less paid nothing, and 45% paid $1-$25 each week.

Overall, 21% of children were in spaces subsidized by the government to some extent. Subsidies were restricted almost exclusively to lower income families. In 1988, 30% of families with a parental income of $50,000 or less reported that they had received subsidies. Almost half (48%) of families with incomes of $30,000 or less reported that they had some degree of financial assistance, although about 3% did not know if they had been subsidized.

For many parents, sitter care is a lower cost option than formal day care, and this may account for the preponderance of this type of care. Almost 85% of children left in the care of a sitter cost their parents less than $50 each week, 32% paid nothing, 32% paid $1-$25 each week, and another 21% paid $26-$50 each week. Fewer than 6% of all children in sitter care cost their parents over $75 each week, and most of these were in families with high incomes.

Families with incomes of $30,000 or less were the most likely to have low cost sitter arrangements. Almost half of children in families with incomes of

Definitions

Day care facility: A licensed or provincially approved centre or private home which cares for children outside their home for eight to ten hours each day.

Centre care: A licensed day care centre caring for groups of children.

Family day care: A program involving the selection and supervision by a government or authorized private agency of private families who care for children during the day.

For the purposes of this document, the above forms of care are referred to as "licensed child care". All other forms of care are referred to as "informal" or "private" day care arrangements.

The National Child Care Survey (NCCS)

The NCCS is Canada's most comprehensive survey on child care arrangements. Conducted in September and October, 1988, the NCCS was administered as a supplement to the monthly Labour Force Survey in all households with at least one child under the age of 13. The objective was to provide information on the need for child care, and the relationships between family structure, child care choices, and work demands.

- For a full description of the survey, or for further information, contact Sue Lafrance at (613) 951-0524.

Direct child care expenses

According to the 1986 Family Expenditure Survey, 1.4 million Canadian families spent over $1 billion on direct child care expenses. About 75% of these families used regular care arrangements while the remainder used babysitters on an irregular basis. Not all families, however, report child care expenses. In 1986, 44% of all families with children aged 15 and younger reported child care expenses, down from 46% in 1982, but up from 41% in 1978.

Families spent more of their budget on child care in 1986 than they had previously. In 1986, 0.6% of total family spending was for child care, compared with 0.4% in 1978. Of the families who used direct child care, 3% of their total spending in 1986 was for that reason, up from 2% in 1978. In 1986, families spent an average of $1,219 per child for direct child care, up from $782 in 1984 and $448 in 1978. However, the cost to families of direct child care varies with the age of the children. Younger children usually require more expensive full-time care.

In 1986, 11% of families with children had expenses for babysitting, 4% had expenses for day care or day nurseries, 5% had expenses for other care outside of the home, and 3% had expenses for care provided in their own homes. In-home care was the most expensive type of day care in 1986, followed by day care, and then other care outside of the home. This information, however, did not account for the number of children receiving care, the number of hours each week, and the receipt of day care subsidies.

- For more information, contact Brian Murphy at (613) 951-3769.

Average annual child care expenditures, by type, 1978-1986

	Constant 1986 dollars		
	1978	1982	1986
Child care	802	934	1,219
Day care	875	1,263	1,388
In-home care	-	1,237	1,802
Care outside the home	1,212	1,159	1,096
Other care (i.e. babysitters)	-	235	242

Source: Statistics Canada, Family Expenditure Survey 1978, 1982 and 1986.

$20,000 or less were cared for free of charge, as were 39% of those in families with incomes from $20,001-$30,000. However, families with higher incomes also took advantage of low cost arrangements. Nearly 24% of children in families with incomes exceeding $50,000 were also looked after for free.

Parental satisfaction

According to the NCCS, most parents are satisfied with their child care arrangements. Parents of 69% of children in formal day care settings and 77% of those in the care of a sitter had "no reservations" about their children's well-being while they were at work, and 92% of all children in sitter or day care were in arrangements that their parents considered to be somewhat or very satisfactory.

Most children in need of care while their parents worked stayed with one care arrangement throughout the year. However, 816,000 children did move to a new care giver at least once during the year. This was cited as one of the main difficulties encountered by working parents.

Conclusions

The continuing movement of women into the labour force, and the increase in lone-parent families will provide a growing demand for a variety of forms of child care. Some employers in the private and public sectors are responding to this demand by offering their employees child care associated with the workplace. However, privately arranged, unlicensed child care predominates at present.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Editor with* Canadian Social Trends. **Susan Crompton** *is an analyst with Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division.* **Katherine Nessner** *is a researcher also with* Canadian Social Trends *and* **Alison Jones** *is her personal assistant.*

- More information on child care can be found in "Who's looking after the kids? Child care arrangements of working mothers" by Susan Crompton in the Summer 1991 issue of *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E.

CANADA'S SENIORS

by Pierre Gauthier



Seniors constitute one of the fastest-growing demographic groups in Canada. Arbitrarily defined as people aged 65 and over, seniors are drawing increased attention from policy-makers and providers of services, largely due to projections that their numbers will increase in the early part of the next century. There is concern that the large number of seniors will strain existing systems for the provision of medical, social, and other services.

As researchers and others turn their attention to seniors, a portrait is beginning to emerge of a diverse and rapidly changing group. Seniors are not a homogenous group — their needs vary as widely as their economic situations, their health, and their living situations.

Rapid growth

Growth in the number of seniors is rapid. The estimated 1.3 million men and 1.8 million women aged 65 and over represent about 12% of the population in 1991, up from 8% in 1971. By the year 2036, the proportion is expected to increase to 25%. The growth will be especially pronounced among those aged 75 and over. By 2036, these people are projected to account for 13% of the population, up from 5% in 1991 and 3% in 1971.

Not a homogenous group

Among seniors, women outnumber men, and this ratio increases with age. Overall, women made up 58% of Canada's 2.7 million seniors in 1986. Women made up 55% of those aged 65-74, and this proportion increased to 60% of those aged 75-84, and to 70% in the 85 and over group.

Seniors are more likely to be immigrants than are other Canadians. For example, in 1986, immigrants accounted for over 35% of people aged 75 and over, and 22% of those aged 65-74. By contrast, only 16% of all Canadians were immigrants.

The living situations of seniors also vary. In 1986, the majority of senior men were married (72%) and living in family households (82% of men aged 65-74 and 66% of men aged 75 and over). However, only 37% of senior women were married, and a much higher proportion of them were widowed (48% of senior women compared with 14% of senior men). In the 65-74 age

group, 60% of women lived in family households, 36% in non-family households, and 4% in collective dwellings. Among women aged 75 and over, almost one-half (46%) lived in non-family households, 34% lived in family households, and 20% lived in collective dwellings.

Increasing numbers of seniors, especially those aged 75 and over, are living alone. In large part, this may be because seniors have an increasing network of support services upon which to draw. In 1986, 38% of women aged 75 and over lived alone, up from 36% in 1981. The proportions for men, although much lower, are also increasing. In 1986, 17% of men aged 75 and over lived alone, up slightly from 16% in 1981.

Improving economic situation

Incidence of low income fell faster for seniors than for Canadians overall between 1983 and 1988. The proportion of senior families headed by men living below the low-income cut-offs dropped from 11% to 7%, and from 18% to 14% for those headed by women. In comparison, the incidence of low income among families in Canada fell from 14% to 11% during that period.

Support for seniors

Seniors' social support networks differ from those of the general population. The 1990 General Social Survey (Cycle 5) asked the following question of respondents: "Suppose you feel just a bit down or depressed and you wanted to talk about it, whom would you turn to first for help?" According to survey results, 25% of seniors, compared with 36% of overall respondents, reported that they would most likely turn to their spouse or partner. This difference may be due to the large number of seniors who are widowed. Seniors are almost five times as likely as the overall population to turn to a son or daughter (27% compared with 6%). However, they are much less likely to turn to a friend for help (11% compared with 26%). Seniors are twice as likely as the general population to turn to a professional, such as a family doctor, a clergy member, or a counsellor for help (9% compared with 5%). The proportion of seniors who would not ask anyone for help is also almost twice that of the whole population (7% compared with 4%).

Despite even greater declines, the incidence of low income among unattached seniors remains very high. The incomes of almost one out of four unattached senior men (23%) and more than four out of ten unattached senior women (44%) fell below the low-income cut-offs in 1988. These proportions were down from 49% and 62%, respectively, in 1983.

A large proportion of households headed by seniors had relatively low incomes. In 1988, 38% of households headed by seniors had incomes of less than $15,000, compared with 18% of all households. Conversely, fewer than 12% of senior households had incomes of $45,000 or more, compared with 36% of all households.

Income alone does not necessarily reflect the financial position of seniors. About 55% of households headed by seniors own homes free of mortgages and another 9% are paying off mortgages. These owner households may gain disposable income compared to renter households, because they often have lower monthly shelter payments. For example, in 1986, households with heads aged 75 and over paid a monthly average of $217 for shelter if they were owners,

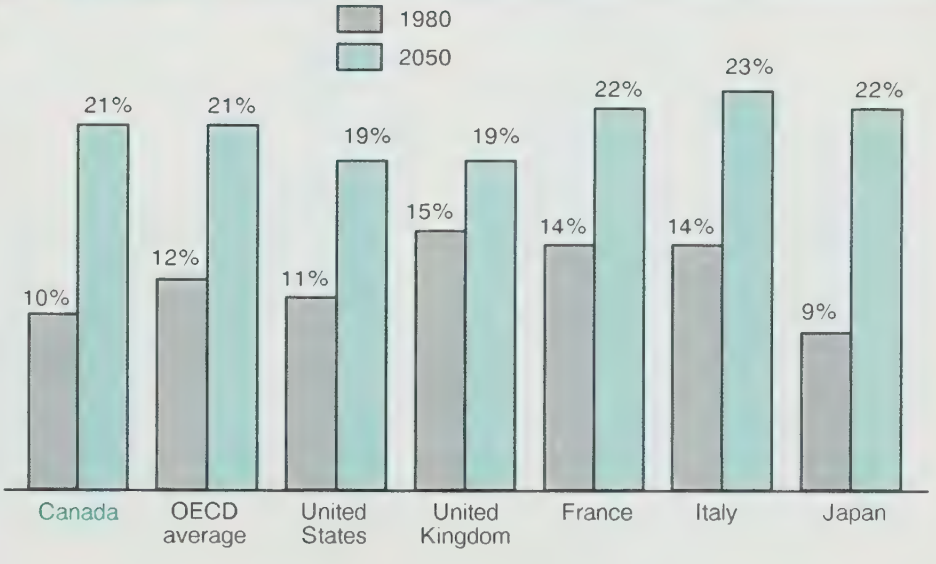
International phenomenon

Population aging is not unique to Canada. According to the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), most industrialized countries are undergoing demographic shifts similar to Canada's. During the twentieth century, the populations of all OECD countries aged; however, the rate of increase varied from country to country. In 1980, 12% of the populations of all OECD countries were aged 65 and older, up from 9% in 1950 and around 5% in 1900. In 1980, Sweden, West Germany, and Austria had the highest concentration of seniors (16%), followed by the United Kingdom (15%).

The populations of OECD countries have had a long-term trend of declining fertility and mortality rates, and changing migration patterns, which have all contributed to the aging of their societies. With the exception of Ireland and Turkey, fertility rates in all OECD countries are below the level required for replacement of the population and in a minority of countries, such as Japan, rapid population aging is already occurring. Only modest increases in the proportion of seniors are expected in the majority of OECD countries in the near future. After the year 2000, a greater proportion of the baby-boom generation (and therefore of the total population) will become seniors. By the year 2050, it is projected that 21% of people in OECD countries will be seniors.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of the population aged 65 and over, Canada and selected nations, 1980 and 2050



Source: OECD, *Ageing Populations: The Social Policy Implications*, 1988.

compared with $363 if renters. In addition, home ownership is an important source of wealth. In 1984, equity in their residence comprised about 40%, on average, of the wealth or assets of senior families and individuals.

Pensions

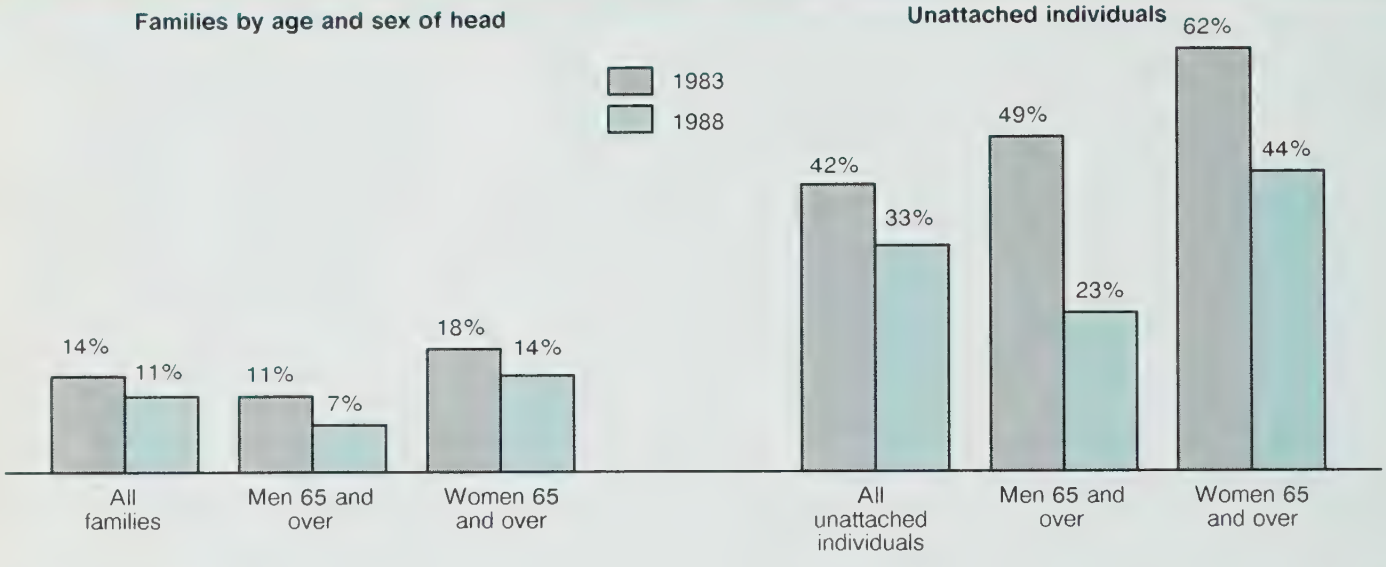
Public pension plans introduced in Canada in the last three decades have become important sources of income for Canadian seniors. In 1987, Canada and Quebec Pension Plan payments made up, on average, 44% of the total income of families headed by senior women and 24% of those headed by senior men. In addition, Old Age Security and Guaranteed Income Supplement payments made up 22% of the income of families headed by women aged 65 and over and 24% of that of families headed by senior men.

Private registered pension plans made up a much larger portion of the income of families headed by senior men than of those headed by senior women. In 1987, on average, 18% of the income of families headed by senior men came from private pensions, compared with only 7% for families headed by senior women.

The proportion of seniors with private retirement pensions increased between 1977 and 1988. In 1988, slightly more than half of men aged 65 and over received private pensions, up from approximately one-third in 1977. The increase was smaller for women, rising to about one-quarter in

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

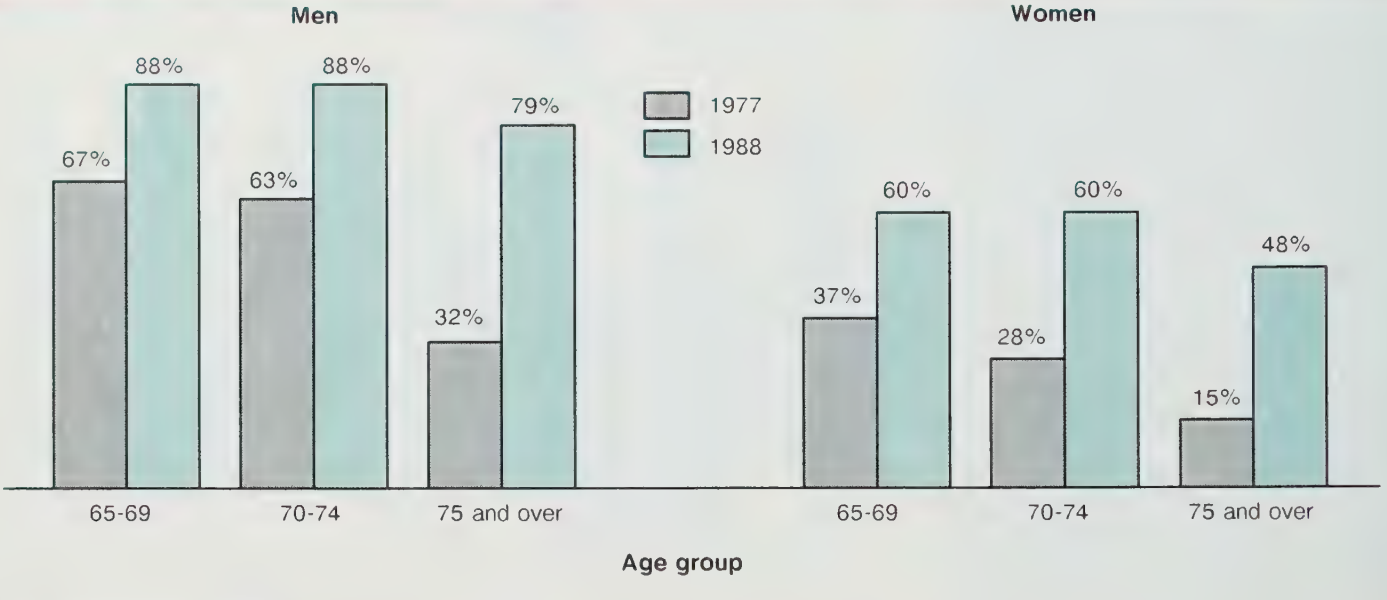
Incidence of low income among families and unattached individuals, 1983 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-519.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of seniors receiving CPP/QPP, 1977 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-519.

1988 from slightly less than one-fifth in 1977. However, this proportion is expected to grow as the nearly two million women (about one-third of the female labour force), currently members of private pension plans, reach retirement.

Health

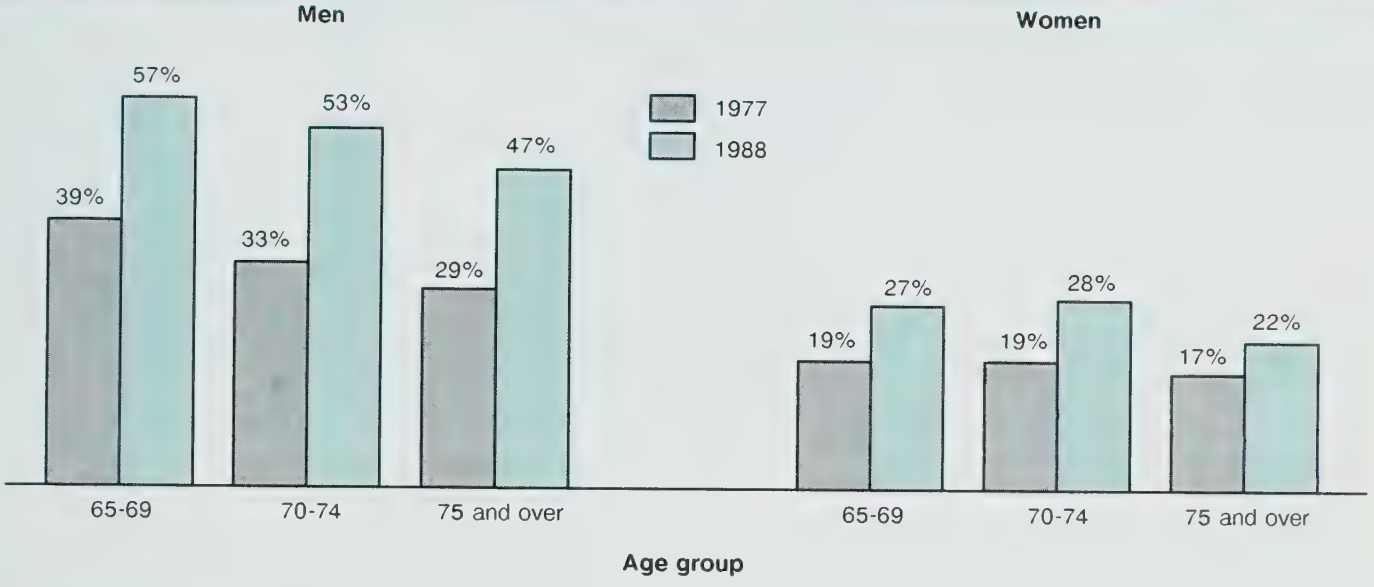
Seniors have more health problems than younger people. In 1985, the most common health problems for seniors were arthritis/rheumatism (reported by 63% of women and 46% of men) and hypertension (43% of men and 33% of women). Respiratory and heart problems were each reported by about 25% of seniors (more than twice the rates for the total population), and diabetes was reported by 9% of seniors (compared with 2% of the total population).

Disability rates increase with age. In 1986, fewer than 10% of people under age 55 reported a disability. The proportion jumped to about 25% in the 55-64 age group, then climbed steadily to 75% of males and 85% of females aged 85 and over.

A relatively large proportion of seniors reported disabilities, with mobility and agility problems the most common. Mobility disabilities were reported by 31% of seniors in private households (not in institutions), while 26% reported agility problems. Changes in the physical and social environment can often help seniors to cope with losses in functional ability due to these types of disabilities.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

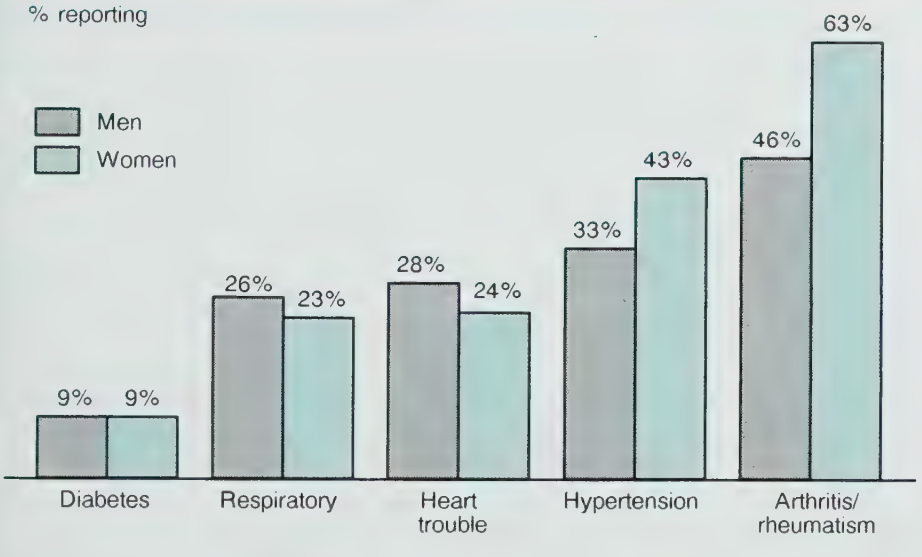
Percentage of seniors with private retirement pensions, 1977 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-519.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Selected health problems among seniors, by sex, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-519.

Life satisfaction

Most seniors reported that they were happy or satisfied with various aspects of their lives. Results of the 1990 General Social Survey (Cycle 5) found that about 95% of both seniors and Canadians overall reported themselves as very happy or somewhat happy, and only 5% reported that they were very or somewhat unhappy.

Similar proportions of seniors reported being satisfied with their relationships with their immediate families (95%), their spouses or their single status (91%), their friends (93%), and their accommodations (95%). These proportions were about the same for the total population. The one exception was satisfaction with their amount of free time: 89% of seniors, compared with only 75% of the total population, reported being satisfied.



Fewer seniors consumed alcohol on a regular basis (56% of males, 31% of females) than did those under age 65 (66%). The incidence of regular smoking was also lower among seniors (23% of males, 15% of females) than among non-seniors (32%).

People aged 65 and over were three times more likely than average (6% compared with 2%) to report that their health was poor. However, the majority (71%) of seniors in private households reported that their health was good or excellent.

Between 1980-81 and 1985-86, hospitalization rates fell for the total population, but increased for the senior population. As of 1985-86, the hospitalization rate for men aged 65-74 was almost three times that of the total male population (34,176 per 100,000 compared with 12,333), while the rate for women in this age group was about one and a half times the rate for all women (25,758 compared with 16,660). Among those aged 75 and over, rates were roughly two and a half times higher than the average for women and roughly four and a half times higher than the average for men.

Activities of seniors

Seniors have more leisure time than do other Canadians. In 1986, they averaged 7.8 hours of free time per day, compared with 6.5 hours for those aged 55-64, and 5.2 hours for people aged 15-54. Seniors who cared for family members devoted slightly more time per day, on average, to this activity (3.9 hours) than did their counterparts aged 15-64 (3.7 hours).

Seniors are active in the community. In 1988, about 50% of seniors reported participation in political organizations. Roughly 20% of seniors reported involvement in religious or church-related organizations, and similar proportions reported that they devoted time to charitable, service or volunteer organizations.

Seniors also attend church more often than do Canadians overall. In 1990, 54% of seniors reported that they attended religious services at least once a month, compared with 37% of the total population. In addition, only a small minority of seniors reported having no religion (5% compared with 12% of the total population).

Many seniors are also returning to school. In 1988, almost 5,400 people aged 60 and over were enrolled in university, mostly part-time, a 17% increase from 1983.

Pierre Gauthier *is an Assistant Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

- More information on seniors can be found in Statistics Canada's *A Portrait of Seniors in Canada*, Catalogue 89-519.

LEAVING THE FOLD: DECLINING CHURCH ATTENDANCE

by Alain Baril and George A. Mori



Most Canadians are affiliated with a formal religion and attend religious services. However, Canada is becoming a more secular society than it once was. And according to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, the pace of change is increasing.

As affiliation with most major Christian churches declines, the percentage of Canadians without a religion is growing. Furthermore, declines in attendance at religious services have occurred over the past few years.

Catholics now outnumber Protestants

Canada historically has been predominantly Christian, with most of the population divided between Protestants and Catholics. For more than 100 years, Protestants outnumbered Catholics. However, as their numbers declined and the number of Catholics increased, a shift occurred in the distribution of these two denominations. In 1971, for the first time in Canadian history, Catholics outnumbered Protestants. They remain the dominant religious group in Canada, and in 1990, Roman Catholics accounted for 45% (9.3 million) of adult Canadians. This proportion has been relatively stable for the last decade.

Those affiliated with the mainline protestant denominations, on the other hand, accounted for just 30% (6.2 million) of the adult population in 1990, down from 33% in 1985 and 36% in 1981. The decline has been fairly constant since 1941.

Growth in "no religion"

One of the biggest changes, however, is the growth in the proportion of Canadians with no religious affiliation. In 1990, these people ranked third behind Catholics and Protestants, accounting for 12% (2.5 million) of adult Canadians. This was down slightly from the previous year when 13% of Canadians stated that they had "no religion", but up from 10% in 1985 and 7% in 1981.

Decline in church attendance

Adding those without a religion to those affiliated with a church, but who rarely or never attend church services, the proportion with "no religion" swells to 37% of the adult population. This is because regular attendance at church services had dropped considerably by 1990 from previous years. In 1990, Canadians 15 years of age and older attended church an average of 14.2 times, down from 16.1 five years earlier. Just 24% of Canadian adults attended church weekly, down from 27% in 1985. Over the same five-year period, 847,000 fewer people attended church at least once a month (including those attending at least once a week), while there was an increase of one million people who attended church at least once in the previous year (but less than once a month).

Roman Catholic Church attendance drops most

The Roman Catholic Church experienced a constant decline in church attendance during the last five years. In 1990, 30% of Catholics attended church once a week, down from 36% in 1985. At the same time, the proportion who rarely (more than once a year, but less than once a month) or never attended church increased to 21% from 16%.

For two of the main protestant denominations, the United and Anglican Churches, there was no clear pattern in attendance over the last five-year period. In 1990, 38% of those affiliated with the United Church, and 37% of Anglicans rarely or never attended church, up from 33% of each denomination in 1989. However, the proportions were down from 46% of United Church members and 44% of Anglicans in 1985.

Age

Older people tend to be more involved in religious activities than do younger people. In 1990, 42% of Canadians aged 65 and over attended a religious service or meeting at least once a week. The proportion dropped to 31% for people aged 45-64, and to 18% or less among 15-44-year-olds. Nevertheless, weekly attendance at religious services was lower across all age groups in 1990 than in 1985.

Among those who rarely or never attend church, patterns varied among age groups. The biggest change was among people aged 65 and over. In 1990, 21% of elderly people rarely or never attended religious services. Although up from 17% in 1988, the proportion was down

Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS) collects data annually from a sample of approximately 10,000 respondents aged 15 and over. Since 1985, two religion questions have been asked on each survey, one about religious affiliation, and the other about attendance at religious services or meetings. For further information about the GSS, see "The General Social Survey", **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1990.

Distribution of religions in Canada,[1] 1985-1990

		1985	1986	1988	1989	1990
Roman Catholic	000s	8,845	9,014	9,203	9,161	9,270
	%	45.0	45.3	45.6	45.2	45.2
Mainline Protestant						
United	000s	2,850	2,674	2,757	2,271	2,521
	%	14.5	13.4	13.7	11.2	12.3
Anglican	000s	2,017	1,773	1,929	1,781	1,892
	%	10.3	8.9	9.6	8.8	9.2
Other	000s	1,626	1,691	1,634	1,566	1,746
	%	8.3	8.5	8.1	7.7	8.5
No religion	000s	2,054	2,023	2,183	2,651	2,492
	%	10.4	10.2	10.8	13.1	12.1
Other	000s	2,095	2,416	2,080	2,409	1,851
	%	10.7	12.1	10.3	11.9	9.0
Not stated	000s	181	308	407	408	358
	%	0.9	1.5	2.0	2.0	1.7
Total	**000s**	**19,668**	**19,898**	**20,194**	**20,248**	**20,526**
	%	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] Population aged 15 and over.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

considerably from 32% in 1985. Among those aged 25-64, the proportion also increased between 1988 and 1990, after three years of decline. For the youngest group, 15-24-year-olds, the proportion declined steadily from 1985 to 1990.

Gender

Women tend to be more active than men in church activities. In 1990, 40% of Canadian women and 32% of Canadian men attended religious services at least once a month, a narrower gap than five years earlier when 47% of women and 37% of men attended that often.

The presence of female clergy in Canada remains limited. According to the results of a 1986 survey of 80 Canadian religious denominations, just 29 indicated that they ordained women, 31 said that they did not, and 20 said that they had no clear policy or had no clergy whatsoever. The United Church of Canada reported the highest number, with 441 female clergy or 11% of their total clergy. The Anglican Church reported 212 (7%), and the Presbyterian Church, 86 (8%).

Region

People in the Atlantic provinces are more likely to attend church weekly than are those in Central Canada or the Western provinces (where attendance is lowest). However, recent declines in church attendance were sharpest in Quebec. In 1990, 24% of Quebec residents attended religious services or meetings at least once a week, down from 30% five years earlier. By comparison, the number of frequent church goers in Ontario declined only slightly over the same period, to 25% in 1990 from 26% in 1985.

Over the last half of the 1980s, monthly attendance declined most sharply in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces. By 1990, only 12% of Quebec residents attended religious services once a month, down from 18% in 1985. The Atlantic provinces experienced a similar drop, to 14% from 20%.

Marital status

Widowed people are the most frequent church attenders. More than half of all widowed people attended religious services at least once a month from 1985 to 1990.

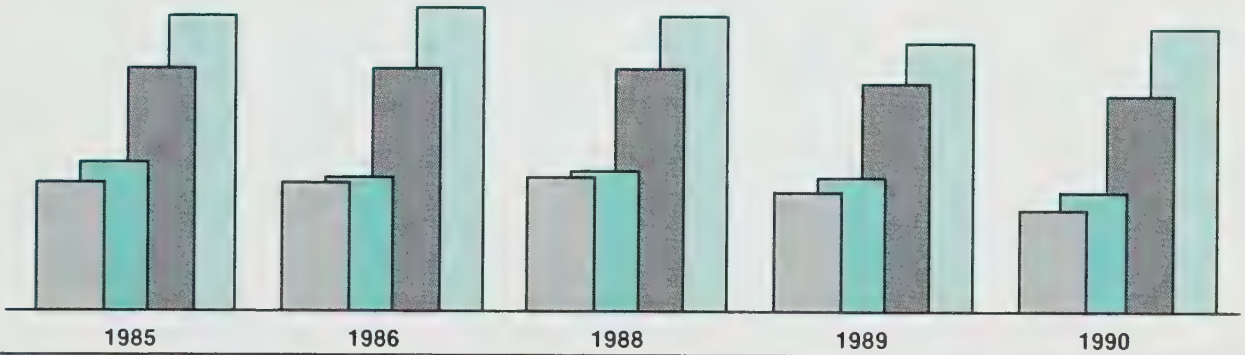
Attendance at religious services or meetings, by frequency, 1985-1990[1]

		1985	1986	1988	1989	1990
At least once a week[2]	000s	5,297	5,408	5,503	5,252	4,924
	%	26.9	27.2	27.3	25.9	24.0
At least once a month	000s	3,000	2,967	2,729	2,416	2,526
	%	15.3	14.9	13.5	11.9	12.3
At least once a year	000s	3,714	4,046	5,317	5,404	5,557
	%	18.9	20.3	26.3	26.7	27.1
Less than once a year or never	000s	5,445	5,115	4,142	4,100	4,683
	%	27.7	25.7	20.5	20.2	22.8
Not stated/not applicable	000s	2,212	2,361	2,503	3,076	2,836
	%	11.2	11.9	12.4	15.2	13.8
Total	**000s**	**19,668**	**19,898**	**20,194**	**20,248**	**20,526**
	%	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] Population aged 15 and over.
[2] Attendance categories are mutually exclusive.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of people attending religious services or meetings at least once a week, by age, 1985-1990



	1985	1986	1988	1989	1990
15-24	19%	19%	20%	18%	15%
25-44	22%	20%	21%	20%	18%
45-64	36%	36%	36%	34%	32%
65 and over	44%	45%	44%	40%	42%

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

For example, the proportion in 1990 was 52%. This was not simply a generation effect, as widowed people in both the 25-44 and 45-64 age groups were the most frequent church goers.

The least frequent attenders were divorced people: 23% of these people attended religious services at least once a month in 1990. The proportions were 31% for single people and 39% for those who were married. Among those 65 and over, slightly more married people attended church frequently than did widowed people.

Canada/U.S. comparisons

In both Canada and the United States, church attendance has been declining and those reporting "no religion" have been increasing. There are, however, several important differences between the two countries.

Unlike Canada, the United States is predominantly Protestant. According to 1988 Gallup Poll figures, 59% of the United States population is Protestant and 27% is Catholic. As well, the mainline protestant denominations in the United States are different from those in Canada. In the United States, more people are affiliated with the Baptist Church than with any other protestant denomination, followed by the Methodist and Lutheran Churches. In Canada, the United and Anglican Churches have the largest affiliation, followed by the Presbyterian, Lutheran and Baptist Churches.

Americans are more likely than Canadians to be frequent church goers. A 1988 Gallup Poll question, "Did you, yourself, happen to attend a church or synagogue in the last seven days?", resulted in an affirmative response among 42% of Americans aged 18 and over, compared with 32% in Canada. This is a considerable shift from the past. As recently as 1975, more Canadians than Americans attended church weekly (41% versus 40%), and in 1957, the Canadian rate was considerably above that in the United States (60% versus 47%).

Recent controversy

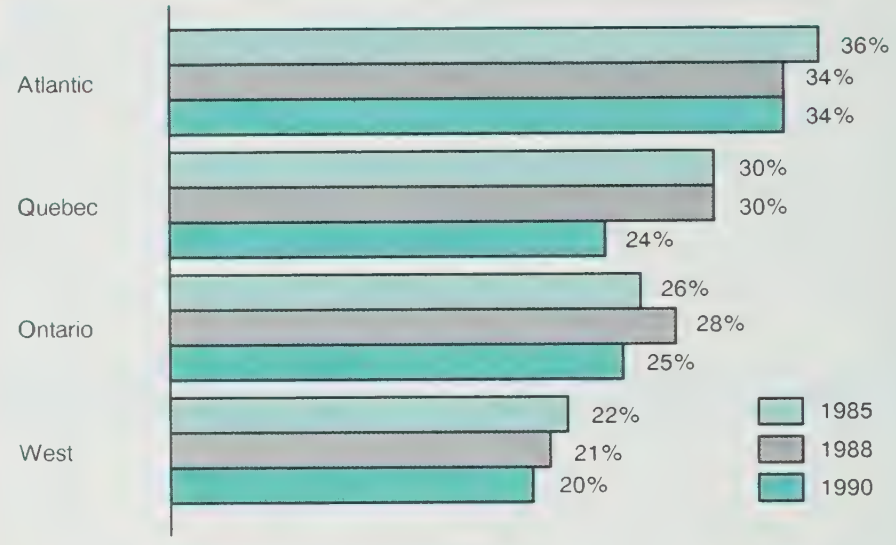
It could be argued that recent events in North America have had an effect on trends in religious activity in Canada. The sharp increase in 1989 of people reporting "no religion" and the decrease in the proportion attending church on a regular basis may have been influenced by the widespread controversy in Canada surrounding the United Church's decision to allow the ordination of homosexuals and the emergence of criminal allegations that Roman Catholic clergy had sexually abused children. Canadians' apparent disillusionment with formal religion also may stem, in part, from the implication of media evangelists (associated with the PTL (Praise The Lord) Movement in the United States) in scandalous activities.

Nevertheless, while most Canadians still have formal religious affiliations, there is an overall trend toward declining religious activity in Canada. Whether or not the tide will turn again as the Canadian society changes, or in response to global events, remains to be seen.

Alain Baril *and* **George A. Mori** *are analysts with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

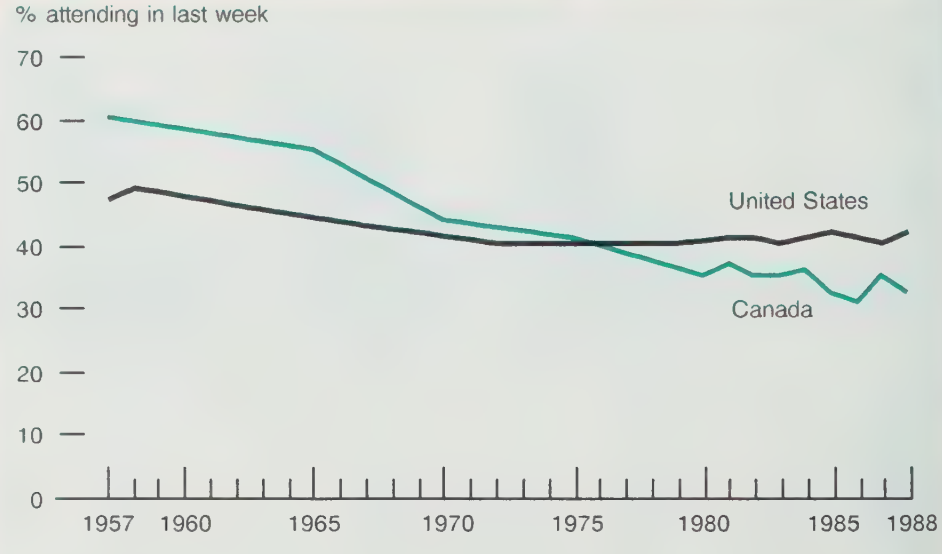
Percentage of people attending religious services or meetings at least once a week, by region, 1985-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Church or synagogue attendance,[1] Canada and United States, 1957-1988

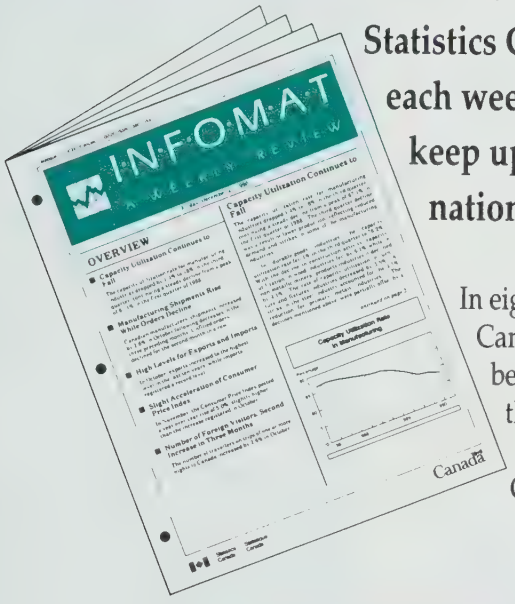


1 Adults aged 18 and over.
Source: Gallup Poll.

I·N·F·O·M·A·T

Don't start your week without it

Get a jump on your work week by making sure you have the most current economic and social information in Canada. Travelling by first class mail or courier, Statistics Canada's digest, Infomat, arrives at the beginning of each week to help you monitor key economic indicators and keep up with the most current data releases from Canada's national statistical agency.



In eight fact-filled pages, Infomat highlights the findings of Statistics Canada surveys and brings them to your desk each week, often long before detailed reports are published. Throughout the year you'll get the first results of over 100 ongoing surveys and many special surveys—from manufacturing shipments to the health of Canadians or post graduate employment to part-time workers.

Each week, Infomat presents you with,

- **concise summaries of fresh facts from over 100 ongoing surveys**
- **charts and graphs that let you instantly scan the trends**
- **Overview - an outline of the subjects covered in each issue that you can scan in 30 seconds**
- **guidance on how to obtain special reports to assist you in your more detailed research.**
- **Current Trends and Latest Monthly Statistics sections that bring you up to date on the Consumer Price Index, Gross Domestic Product and 21 other key monthly series**

Managers, analysts and researchers who are responsible for keeping up to date on changes in Canada's economic and social climate can count on Infomat — as a quick overview of the latest trends and as a weekly reminder of key indicators and data releases. Many subscribers use Infomat's highlights to add authority to their industry analyses, investment plans or corporate reports.

To order Infomat (11-002E), 50 issues annually for $125 in Canada, US$150 in the U.S. and US$175 in other countries, write to Publications Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Canada, K1A OT6. For faster service, use your VISA or MasterCard and call toll-free in Canada, 1-800-267-6677.

EMPLOYMENT EQUITY

by Joanne Moreau



The term "employment equity" is uniquely Canadian and was coined by the 1984 Royal Commission on Equality in Employment (the Abella Commission). Employment equity has been adopted to describe programs designed to improve the situation of individuals who, because they are or can be identified as being in a particular group, find themselves adversely affected by certain systems or practices in the workplace.

Federally, four groups have been identified as disadvantaged because of their labour force participation and unemployment rates, their income levels, and their persistent occupational segregation. These four groups are: *women, aboriginal people, visible minorities, and people with disabilities*.

The federal government initiated the Employment Equity Act, the Federal Contractors' Program and the Public Service Employment Equity Program to eliminate practices that result in employment barriers for the four groups, and to ensure that those groups achieve a degree of employment proportionate to their representation in the work force as defined by qualification, eligibility, and geography.

Definitions of employment equity designated groups

- Aboriginal people include North American Indians, Inuit and Métis.
- Visible minorities encompass people, other than aboriginal people, who are non-white in colour or non-Caucasian in race. Visible minorities were divided in ten groups: Blacks, Chinese, Filipino, other Pacific Islanders, Indo-Pakistani, Japanese, Korean, Southeast Asians, West Asians and Arabs, and Latin Americans.
- People with disabilities include people who have any persistent physical, mental, psychiatric, sensory or learning impairment and who consider themselves to be, or believe an employer or a potential employer would likely consider them to be disadvantaged in employment because of an impairment.

Employment Equity Data Program

In the mid-1980s, Statistics Canada established the Employment Equity Data Program. This program is involved in the development and operationalization of concepts related to employment equity, and in the collection, analysis, and dissemination of data to support federal initiatives. Benchmark statistics — the numbers, percentages, and labour characteristics of the designated group members — are one of the key data outputs of the program. This type of information helps employers gauge their own performance and develop realistic goals and timetables for achieving a representative work force. These statistics are also used by federal departments responsible for designing, monitoring, and enforcing employment equity programs.

The latest benchmark statistics were derived from two Statistics Canada sources. The 1986 Census of Canada provided information on women, aboriginal people, and visible minorities, while the 1986 Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS) served as the data source for people with disabilities. Updated benchmark statistics on the four designated groups will be drawn from the 1991 Census and the 1991 HALS. Several other surveys are also used in the production and analysis of employment equity data: the Labour Market Activity Survey; the National Graduate Survey; the Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities; and Special Labour Force Survey supplements.

To date, more than 50 analytic and qualitative reports and a half-dozen data products related to employment equity have been released by Statistics Canada.

For more information about the program and its products, please contact:
Ms. Brenda Cardillo, Manager,
Employment Equity Data Program
Statistics Canada
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A OT6 (613) 951-2559



Statistical highlights

Labour force characteristics of the designated groups differ considerably from those of the Canadian population. Data from the 1986 Census highlight some of the inequalities which have persisted.

Women

- In 1986, women represented 44% of the population aged 15 and over who worked sometime in 1985 or 1986.
- A higher percentage of women (11.2%) than men (9.6%) were unemployed.
- A larger proportion of women than men were in lower paying occupations, mostly as clerical workers and service workers (45% compared with 13%). Although women were also overrepresented in professional occupations (15% compared with 10%), they were, for the most part, in occupations traditionally dominated by women, such as teaching or nursing (62%). Women were underrepresented in non-traditional occupations such as managers, foremen/women and manual workers.

Aboriginal people

- In 1986, aboriginal people represented 2.1% of Canadian adults aged 15 and over who worked sometime in 1985 or 1986.
- Aboriginal people had unemployment rates (24% for men and 22% for women) more than double those of Canadians overall.
- Aboriginal people had lower educational attainment than Canadians overall. About 26% of aboriginal people aged 15 and over had less than a Grade 9 education, compared with 17% of total Canadians. Moreover, 32% of aboriginal people had some postsecondary education, compared with 43% of total Canadians.
- Aboriginal men were more likely than Canadian men overall to be in manual occupations (57% compared with 45%). Aboriginal women, like Canadian women overall, were concentrated in service and clerical occupations.
- Aboriginal people had lower incomes than Canadians overall. In 1985, the average employment income for aboriginal men who worked full-time, full-year was $26,400, compared with $30,500 for all Canadian men. Aboriginal women in the same situation received an average employment income of $18,500, compared with $20,000 for all Canadian women.

Visible minorities

- The visible minority population represented 6.3% of Canadian adults who worked sometime in 1985 or 1986. They had an unemployment rate that was only slightly higher than the national average (10.8% compared with 10.3%), and an educational attainment higher than the Canadian population (14% had a university degree, compared with just under 10% of Canadians overall). Nonetheless, in 1985, their average employment income ($27,900 for men and $18,900 for women) was lower than that of Canadians overall.
- Men in visible minorities were overrepresented in both the lower and the upper ends of the employment equity occupational scale. They were more likely to be employed in lower paying service occupations than were Canadian men overall (12% compared with 7%). However, men in a visible minority were also more likely to hold professional jobs (14% compared with 10%). Women in visible minorities were more likely than Canadian women overall to be employed in lower paying occupations, especially as manual workers (21% compared with 13%).

People with disabilities that limited them at work

- People aged 15 to 64 with disabilities that limited them at work, who worked at any time between 1981 and 1986, represented 5.4% of the adult Canadian population.
- Unemployment rates for people aged 15 to 64 with disabilities that limited them at work (19% for men and 22% for women) were double the national averages.
- More than half (58%) of men and about one-quarter (23%) of women aged 15 to 64 with disabilities that limited them at work, who worked at any time between 1981 and 1986, were employed as manual workers.
- In 1986, there were 1,255,000 people aged 15 to 64 with disabilities that limited them at work in Canada, of whom 65% had more than one disability.
- People with disabilities that limited them at work were older than the total population. Only 32% of people with disabilities were under 40 years old, compared with 62% of the total population.

Employment equity concepts

Occupational coding: As a result of recommendations made by the Abella Commission, the Employment Equity Program developed its own classification of occupational groups based on the nature and scope of duties and responsibilities, education, type of work, and specific vocational preparation. The labour force was thus divided into 12 occupational groups: upper-level managers, middle and other managers, professionals, semi-professionals and technicians, supervisors, foremen/women, clerical workers, sales workers, service workers, skilled crafts and trades workers, semi-skilled manual workers, and other manual workers.

Reference periods and availability statistics: To give employers an accurate picture of the experienced available labour force, women, aboriginal people, and visible minorities aged 15 and over who worked sometime in 1985 or 1986, as well as people with disabilities aged 15 to 64 who worked at any time between 1981 and 1986, were considered part of the work force in employment equity data. These reference periods are different from the standard reference period (the week before the survey) used by Statistics Canada to count the people qualified and potentially available for work, but who have dropped out of the labour force because of discouragement and other factors. Longer reference periods are more meaningful for the designated groups because these people experience greater mobility in and out of the work force. Unemployment rates and labour force participation rates, however, were tabulated using the Statistics Canada regular reference period.

Joanne Moreau *is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES
Autumn 1986 - Summer 1991

POPULATION

1986 Census Highlights	Summer	1987
1986 Census Highlights: Aging of the Canadian Population	Winter	1987
A Profile of Employed Migrants between Atlantic Canada and Ontario	Spring	1987
An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint Dependency Ratios Implications of an Aging Society	Spring	1991
Calgary: A Statistical Profile	Winter	1987
Canada's Children	Summer	1991
Canada's Immigrant Population	Autumn	1989
Changes in Fertility Among Canada's Linguistic Groups	Autumn	1988
Ethnic Origins of the Canadian Population	Summer	1989
Immigration	Autumn	1986
Immigration during the 1980s	Spring	1991
Interregional Migration of the Canadian Population	Autumn	1987
Language in Canada	Spring	1989
Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly" Population	Autumn	1988
Migration Between Atlantic Canada and Ontario, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
Profile of the Canadian Armed Forces	Winter	1989
Religious Affiliation in Canada	Autumn	1987
South Asians in Canada	Autumn	1989
The Demographic Future	Summer	1990
The Farm Community	Spring	1990
The Indo-Chinese in Canada	Autumn	1990
The Inner City in Transition	Spring	1990
The Inuit	Winter	1989
The Northern Population	Winter	1989
The Socio-demographic Conditions of Registered Indians	Winter	1986
Urban Canada	Winter	1987
Urbanization in Canada	Summer	1991
Winnipeg	Spring	1990

FAMILY

1986 Census Highlights: Changes in Living Arrangements	Spring	1989
1986 Census Highlights: Marital Status	Spring	1988
Common-law: Living Together as Husband and Wife Without Marriage	Autumn	1986
Common-law Unions: Nearly Half a Million in 1986	Autumn	1988
Decline in the Number of Children	Autumn	1990
Divorce Rates in Canada	Winter	1988
Female Lone Parenthood: The Duration of Episodes	Autumn	1988
Household Chores	Spring	1990
Marrying and Divorcing: A Status Report for Canada	Summer	1989
Tying the Knot: An Overview of Marriage Rates in Canada	Autumn	1987
Women Parenting Alone	Winter	1987
Young Adults Living in Their Parents' Home	Summer	1989

HOUSING

Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form	Spring	1990
Forty Years of Social Housing in Toronto	Winter	1987
Home Improvement	Summer	1990
Home Ownership	Spring	1990
Mortgage Rates and the Housing Market	Winter	1986
People in Co-operative Housing	Autumn	1990
Shelter Costs	Spring	1990

LABOUR FORCE

1976 and 1982 Postsecondary Graduates: Selected: Highlights of Their Labour Force Experience	Autumn	1987
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1990	Spring	1991
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989	Spring	1990
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1988	Spring	1989
Annual Review of Labour Force Trends	Autumn	1986
Annual Review of Labour Force Trends	Summer	1987
Annual Update on Labour Force Trends	Summer	1988
Changes in Women's Occupations	Autumn	1990
Employment of Disabled Canadians	Summer	1988
Employment of Humanities and Science Graduates	Summer	1989
Employment Patterns of Elderly Canadians	Autumn	1987
Increases in Long-term Unemployment	Spring	1987
Involuntary Part-time Employment in Canada, 1975-1985	Autumn	1987
Job Displacement	Spring	1988
Labour Force Trends: Canada and the United States	Autumn	1988
Labour Force Trends: Two Decades in Review	Autumn	1990
Maternity Leave	Autumn	1989
Regional Unemployment	Spring	1990
Secretaries	Summer	1990
Self-employment in Canada	Spring	1989
The Changing Industrial Mix of Employment, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline in Employment Among Men Aged 55-64, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline of Unpaid Family Work	Winter	1988
The Growth of Part-time Work	Autumn	1986
The Help-wanted Index	Spring	1988
The Labour Force Participation of Immigrants	Autumn	1986
The Service Sector in the 1980s	Spring	1989
The Value of Household Work in Canada	Autumn	1986
Unemployment Rates for the Full-time and Part-time Labour Forces	Autumn	1987
Unionization in Canada	Spring	1988
Women Employed Outside the Home	Summer	1989
Women in Male-dominated Professions	Winter	1987
Women in Professional Occupations: Progress in the 1980s	Spring	1989
Work Injuries	Summer	1987

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES - Concluded
Autumn 1986 - Summer 1991

INCOME

Average Expenditure of Urban Canadians	Summer	1987
Children in Low-income Families	Winter	1986
Dual-earner Families: The New Norm	Spring	1989
Income of Canada's Seniors	Autumn	1988
Losing Ground: Wages of Young People, 1981-1986	Summer	1989
Low Income in Canada	Spring	1987
Married and Unmarried Couples: The Tax Question	Summer	1991
Retirement Income Programs in Canada	Winter	1986
The Decline of Real Family Income, 1980-1984	Winter	1986

EDUCATION

A Select Few: Canada's Ph.D. Population	Winter	1988
Changes in Educational Attainment	Summer	1990
Community Colleges: An Alternative to Universities	Winter	1986
Computer Literacy	Winter	1990
Education in Canada: Selected Highlights	Autumn	1986
Educational Attainment of Linguistic Groups in Canada	Spring	1991
Foreign Students at Canadian Universities	Summer	1989
French Immersion	Autumn	1986
Low Educational Attainment in Canada, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
Part-time Adult Training	Winter	1988
Part-time University Enrolment	Summer	1987
Program Choices of Foreign University Students	Autumn	1989
Reading Skills	Winter	1990
University Enrolment in the 1980s	Winter	1989
Women in School Administration	Autumn	1990
Women Teaching at Canadian Universities	Summer	1988

HEALTH

Accidents	Summer	1990
AIDS in Canada	Summer	1988
Alcohol and Drug Use	Spring	1991
Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer and Life Expectancy	Winter	1988
Children with Disabilities	Winter	1990
Early Childhood Mortality, 1926-1986	Summer	1991
Hospital Care in the 21st Century	Winter	1989
Increased Life Expectancy, 1921-1981	Summer	1987
Indian Mortality	Winter	1989
Lifestyle Risks: Smoking and Drinking in Canada	Spring	1987
Profile of Canadians with Disabilities	Autumn	1990
Residential Care	Autumn	1989
Seniors with Disabilities	Spring	1991
Sleep Patterns	Winter	1990
Surgery Among Elderly People	Summer	1991
The Decline in Cardiovascular Disease Mortality	Autumn	1989
The Decline in Stroke Mortality	Autumn	1987
The Incidence of Sexually Transmitted Disease in Canada	Summer	1987
Therapeutic Abortion in Canada	Spring	1988
Trends in Cancer Since 1970	Summer	1988
Trends in Suicide	Winter	1988
What Canadians are Eating	Winter	1990

JUSTICE

Canada's Prison Population	Summer	1987
Compensation for Victims of Crime	Winter	1986
Drug Crimes	Spring	1991
Homicide	Summer	1990
Homicide in Canada	Winter	1987
Household Property Crimes	Spring	1990
Illegal Drug Use in Canada	Winter	1988
Impaired Driving Offences	Spring	1989
Legal Aid in Canada	Summer	1987
Perceptions of the Justice System	Winter	1990
Policing in Canada	Summer	1990
Trends in the Crime Rate in Canada, 1970-1985	Autumn	1986
Violence in the Family Family Homicide Male Violence in the Home	Autumn	1989
Violent Crime	Summer	1988
Violent Victimization	Summer	1990
Wife Abuse	Spring	1988
Young Offenders	Autumn	1990

CULTURE

Commuting Time	Winter	1990
Eating Out	Summer	1989
How Canadians Spend Their Day	Winter	1989
New Necessities: Popular Household Appliances	Autumn	1988
Passenger Traffic on Commercial Air Services	Spring	1988
Performing Arts	Winter	1990
Public Libraries	Winter	1989
Television Viewing	Autumn	1989
The Film Industry	Summer	1988
Time Use of the Elderly	Summer	1990
Travel Within Canada	Summer	1988

MISCELLANEOUS

Help Around the House: Support for Older Canadians	Autumn	1989
Loss of Prime Agricultural Land: The Example of Southern Ontario	Summer	1988
Lotteries in Canada	Autumn	1988
Private Transportation	Spring	1989
Public Opinion on Aboriginal Peoples' Issues in Canada	Winter	1988

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,602.6
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4
Immigration[1]	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,148
Emigration[1]	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	37,915
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572
- goods sector (000s)	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626
- services sector (000s)	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946
Total unemployment (000s)	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109
Unemployment rate (%)	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1
Part-time employment (%)	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4
Women's participation rate (%)	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	*
% of families with low income	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	9.6	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,085.4[p]	5,151.8[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	831.9	865.3[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	*
- women	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	*
- women	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.7	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.9
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	692	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,012[p]
- property	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,869[p]
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.4[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1989 $000,000)	149,751.3	150,653.2	155,474.6	157,333.6	160,660.4	164,771.1	169,678.3	173,866.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.2	55.6	55.8	56.3	55.8	56.5	56.2	57.0
- as a % of GDP	27.3	26.2	26.1	26.0	25.4	24.8	24.9	25.9
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+4.7	+2.5	+0.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0	4.8
Urban housing starts	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price	
		In Canada ($ Cdn.)	Elsewhere
66-201	International Travel - Travel Between Canada and Other Countries	$34.00	United States: US $41.00 Other Countries: US $48.00
81-257	Minority and Second Language Education, Elementary and Secondary Levels	$26.00	United States: US $31.00 Other Countries: US $36.00
89-519	A Portrait of Seniors in Canada	$43.00	United States: US $52.00 Other Countries: US $60.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

Statistics Canada's New Releases

Business

Cat. No. 61-218 - Canadian Business Patterns ($39/US$47/US$55)

Cat. No. 68-213 - Public Finance ($35/US$42/US$49)

Canadian Society

Cat. No. 11-612E, No. 4 - General Social Survey - Where Does Time Go? ($40/US$48/US$56)

Cat. No. 11-612E, No. 5 - General Social Survey - Ups and Downs on the Ladder of Success: Social Mobility in Canada ($40/US$48/US$56)

General

Cat. No. 11-204E - Statistics Canada Catalogue ($13.95/US$17/US$20)

DEMOGRAPHICS MADE EASY

Every day you read news items about immigration, aging of the population or fertility. Unfortunately, these stories are often fragmented, making it difficult to get a complete picture of the demographic situation in Canada.

Statistics Canada's annual **Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada** is written to help you understand these demographic interactions and their effects. You'll see, for example, how gains in life expectancy can affect the number of divorces and how the divorce rate impacts on the number of marriages.

The birth rate of new Canadians, population growth, the main causes of death, abortion rates... it's all there. You'll find data and analysis on a wide range of topics presented in both a geographic and a historical context. With a sound understanding of current trend analysis, you'll be well positioned to draw your own conclusions about what the future may hold.

Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada contains more than 50 tables, many revealing graphs, and a concise, easy-to-read text. A handy glossary is also provided which will help newcomers master unfamiliar technical terms.

Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada (Cat. no. 91-209E) sells for only $26 (plus 7% GST) in Canada, US$31 in the United States, and US$36 in other countries.



To order a copy, or to subscribe to this annual publication, please write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6.
FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service call 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?



Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

Government Publications

11
-0088

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CATALOGUE 11-008E



OFF-RESERVE ABORIGINALS □ COMMON LAW

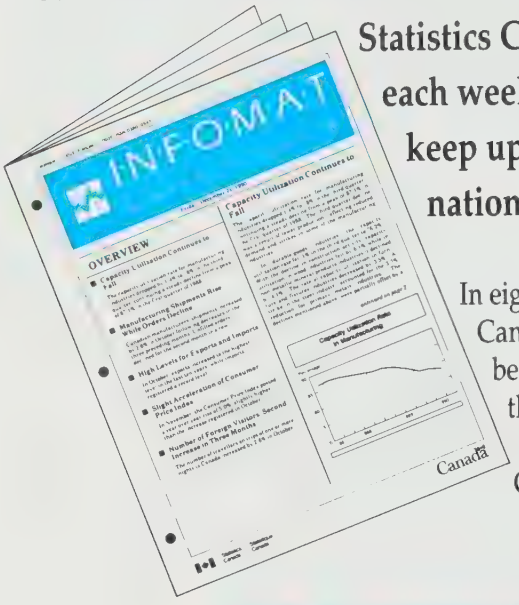
Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

I·N·F·O·M·A·T

Don't start your week without it

Get a jump on your work week by making sure you have the most current economic and social information in Canada. Travelling by first class mail or courier, Statistics Canada's digest, Infomat, arrives at the beginning of each week to help you monitor key economic indicators and keep up with the most current data releases from Canada's national statistical agency.



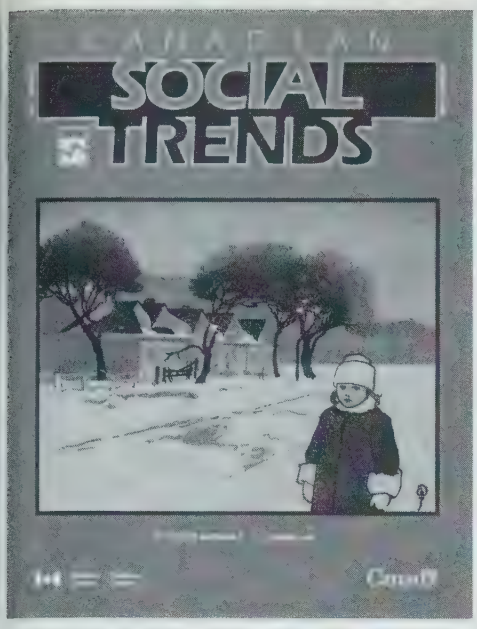
In eight fact-filled pages, Infomat highlights the findings of Statistics Canada surveys and brings them to your desk each week, often long before detailed reports are published. Throughout the year you'll get the first results of over 100 ongoing surveys and many special surveys—from manufacturing shipments to the health of Canadians or post graduate employment to part-time workers.

Each week, Infomat presents you with,

- **concise summaries of fresh facts from over 100 ongoing surveys**
- **charts and graphs that let you instantly scan the trends**
- **Overview - an outline of the subjects covered in each issue that you can scan in 30 seconds**
- **guidance on how to obtain special reports to assist you in your more detailed research.**
- **Current Trends and Latest Monthly Statistics sections that bring you up to date on the Consumer Price Index, Gross Domestic Product and 21 other key monthly series**

Managers, analysts and researchers who are responsible for keeping up to date on changes in Canada's economic and social climate can count on Infomat — as a quick overview of the latest trends and as a weekly reminder of key indicators and data releases. Many subscribers use Infomat's highlights to add authority to their industry analyses, investment plans or corporate reports.

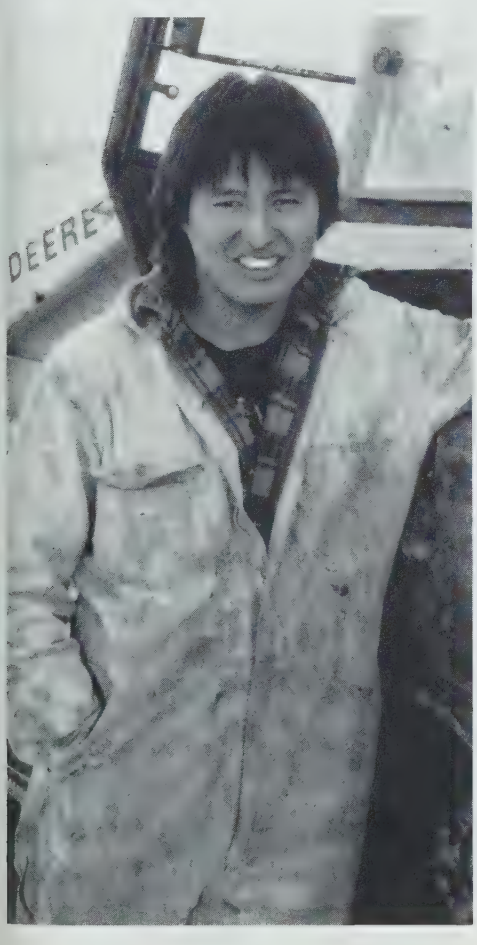
To order Infomat (11-002E), 50 issues annually for $125 in Canada, US$150 in the U.S. and US$175 in other countries, write to Publications Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Canada, K1A OT6. For faster service, use your VISA or MasterCard and call toll-free in Canada, 1-800-267-6677.



Cover: ***Winter in Winnipeg*** (1918) colour woodcut on japan paper, 14.3 × 17.3 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Born in England, **Walter Joseph Phillips** (1884-1963) emigrated with his wife in 1913 to Winnipeg, where he taught art in a high school. He had done water colours in England, and in Canada, he learned to etch and to do colour woodcut prints. By 1917, Phillips' work was known internationally, and he held many solo shows. Later, he moved to Calgary and taught at the Institute of Technology and Art, before retiring to Victoria where he died.



CONTENTS

No. 23 - WINTER 1991

Canada's Off-reserve Aboriginal Population 2
by Ryan J. McDonald

Changing Occupational Structure 8
by Jeff O'Neill

Falling Through the Cracks: Women Aged 55-64 Living on Their Own 14
by Mary Anne Burke and Aron Spector

Common Law: A Growing Alternative 18
by Cam Stout

AIDS
Into the 1990s 22
by Carol Strike

Knowledge, Attitudes and Behaviours in Alberta 24
by Allison L. McKinnon

Changing Faces: Visible Minorities in Toronto 26
by Joanne Moreau

Cumulative Index, Winter 1986-Autumn 1991 29

Social Indicators 31

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor-in-Chief	Craig McKie
Editors	Mary Anne Burke Jo-Anne B. Parliament
Assistant Editor	Jillian Oderkirk
Production Co-ordinator	Cheryl Sarazin
Marketing Co-ordinator	Alex Solis
Writer/Researcher	Katherine Nessner
Art Direction and Composition	Publications Division, Statistics Canada
Design	Griffe Design
Illustrations and Photos	Health and Welfare Canada; Indian and Northern Affairs Canada
Review Committee	J.W. Coombs, D. Desjardins, I. Macredie, D. Norris, D.B. Petrie, G.E. Priest, E.T. Pryor

Acknowledgements R. Armstrong, S. Blais, C. Bronson, J. Hagey, A. Haman, M. Hickey, A. Jones, C. Richard, M. Ricketts, M.P. Robert, M. Saint-Laurent, A. Siggner, N. Turcotte, L. Verdon

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11-008E; aussi disponible en français, n° 11-008F au catalogue) is published four times a year by the Minister of Industry, Science and Technology. © Minister Supply and Services Canada 1991, all rights reserved. First class postage paid at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. SUBSCRIPTION RATES: $34 a year in Canada, $40 US in United States/$48 US elsewhere. Single issue $8.50 each in Canada, $10 US in United States/$12 US elsewhere. Students 30% discount. Send subscription orders and address changes to Statistics Canada, Publication Sales, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, K1A 0T6. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Subscriptions may also be ordered by dialing toll-free **1-800-267-6677**. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor-in-Chief, **Canadian Social Trends**, 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. **Canadian Social Trends** is not responsible for unsolicited materials. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the Minister of Supply and Services Canada. Requests for bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office.

Indexed in the **Canadian Magazine Index** and available on-line in the **Canadian Business and Current Affairs Database**.

ISSN 0831-5698

CANADA'S OFF-RESERVE ABORIGINAL POPULATION

by Ryan J. McDonald



While the characteristics of Aboriginal people who live on reserve are reasonably well documented, there is a growing number who live off reserve about whom relatively little is known. An increasing proportion of Aboriginal people live in cities and towns, many of them far from an Aboriginal community. By 1986, well over half of Canada's Aboriginal population lived in communities which were not Indian reserves or settlements (as recognized under the *Indian Act* of Canada), and about one-third of these people lived in 11 of the larger metropolitan areas.

While Aboriginal people in general are economically disadvantaged compared to Canadians overall, those living outside of primarily native communities have lower levels of educational attainment, higher unemployment rates and lower average incomes than Canadians in general.

Population distribution

About one-quarter of a million (220,300) single origin Aboriginal people lived off reserve in 1986. This included people whose origins were identified as being only from one or more of the three major Aboriginal groups of North American Indian, Inuit and Métis. Excluding the Atlantic region and the Territories, these Aboriginal people were quite evenly distributed among the provinces, and were not heavily concentrated in Ontario and Quebec as is most of the overall Canadian population. For example, just 4% of the Canadian population (slightly over one million) lived in Saskatchewan in 1986, whereas this was the case for 13% (30,000) of Aboriginal people living off reserve.

The provinces in which the largest percentage of Aboriginal people lived outside of reserves and settlements were Newfoundland, where at the time of the 1986 Census there were no reserves, but settlements of Innus, Inuit and Indians, and Alberta, where 65% lived off reserve. In contrast, only 26% of the Aboriginal population of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick lived off reserve.

Age and mobility

Off-reserve Aboriginals, like those on reserves, are on average, much younger than the Canadian population as a whole. In 1986, 45% of the off-reserve Aboriginal population were aged 19 and under, compared with 29% of all Canadians. As well, only 8% of the off-reserve Aboriginal population were aged 55 and over, compared with 20% of all Canadians. Statistics Canada has projected that because registered Indians have higher fertility rates, those living both on and off reserve will continue to have a higher population growth rate, and a younger demographic base than the overall Canadian population.

Aboriginal people living off reserve changed dwelling places more often than the overall Canadian population. In the five years preceding the 1986 Census, 61% of the off-reserve Aboriginal population aged 5 and over had moved, compared with 44% of the overall Canadian population. However, similar proportions of Aboriginal and all Canadian movers changed residences within the same community (59% and 55%, respectively).

Family characteristics

Aboriginal people living off reserve were only slightly less likely than other Canadians to be in family households. In 1986, almost 83% of Aboriginal people living off reserves and settlements lived in family households, compared with 86% of all Canadians.

Aboriginal ancestry

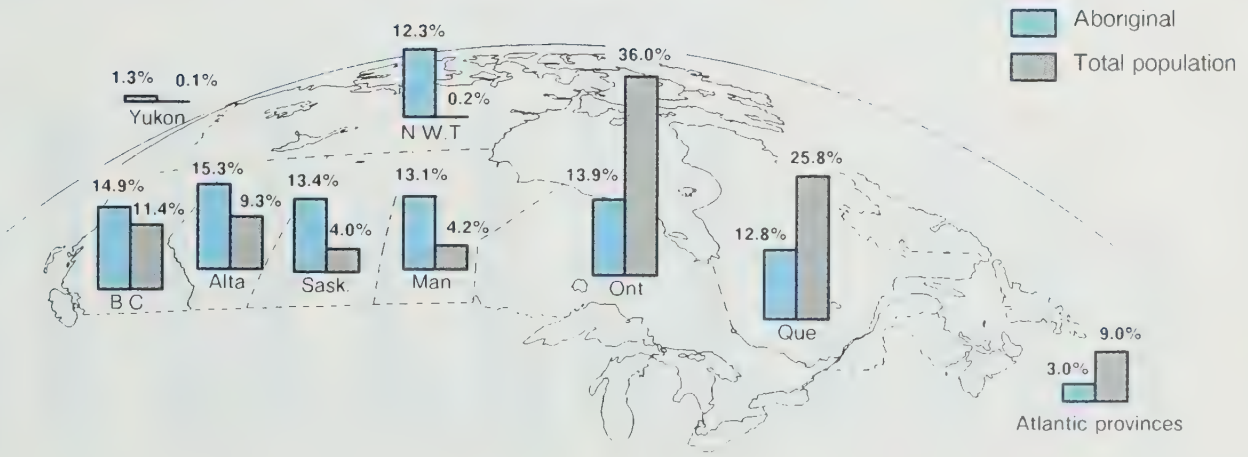
In 1986, just over half a million Aboriginal people were living outside of reserves and settlements in Canada. Of these, 60% had multiple origins (reported mixed ancestries, such as Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal descents). The remaining 40% of Aboriginal people living off reserve reported what are termed "single origins".

Among the off-reserve Aboriginal population, those with mixed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal origins outnumbered those with single origins in every province except Saskatchewan. The numbers in each group varied considerably by province. Although there were similar numbers of single origin Aboriginal people living off reserve in both Ontario and Saskatchewan, the multiple origin population exceeded 110,000 in Ontario, while it consisted of only 20,000 in Saskatchewan. In contrast to the off-reserve population, those living on reserve reported overwhelmingly one Aboriginal origin only.

Unless otherwise specified, the off-reserve Aboriginal population described in this article consists of those who reported single origins. This is because ancestral origin rather than cultural identity was the focus of the 1986 Census. Off-reserve Aboriginal people with single origins were much more likely than those with multiple origins to have an Aboriginal mother tongue, and to identify with their cultural heritage. Over 26% of Aboriginal people living off reserve with single origins had an Aboriginal mother tongue, compared with only 2% of those with mixed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal ancestry.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Population distribution of Aboriginal people[1] living off reserve and total population, 1986



[1] Single origin only.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada and Employment Equity Program.

Registered Indians

Registered Indians are those whose ancestry meets the legal definition set out in the *Indian Act*. Also referred to as status Indians, their names appear on the Indian Register at the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC). Except for those First Nations that are self-governing, provisions of the *Indian Act* regulate some aspects of Indian life, particularly on reserve. Guidelines for membership in an Indian band are outlined in the Act, along with provisions for the political organization of the band, the management of band assets, and the general administration of reserve lands. In many cases, Indian bands have opted out of certain sections of the Act in order to preserve traditional or customary practices.

The passing of Bill C-31 (1985) by the Federal Government allowed the reinstatement of Indians who had lost status or who were denied it as a result of discriminatory clauses in the Act. For example, prior to 1985, a status Indian woman who married anyone but a status Indian was taken off the Indian Register. A male status Indian, however, was able to marry a non-status or non-Indian woman without loss of his status. His spouse, however, gained Indian status under the *Indian Act*. INAC predicts that by the end of 1991, the population reinstated by Bill C-31, most of whom live off reserve, will constitute 18% (92,000) of all registered Indians. Nonetheless, there remain many persons of Indian ancestry who are not registered under the *Indian Act*.

Aboriginal families were, on average, larger than other families. According to Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC), in 1986, when the average Canadian family had 3.1 members, the average Aboriginal family living off reserve had 3.4 people, while those living on reserve were even larger with 4.2 people.

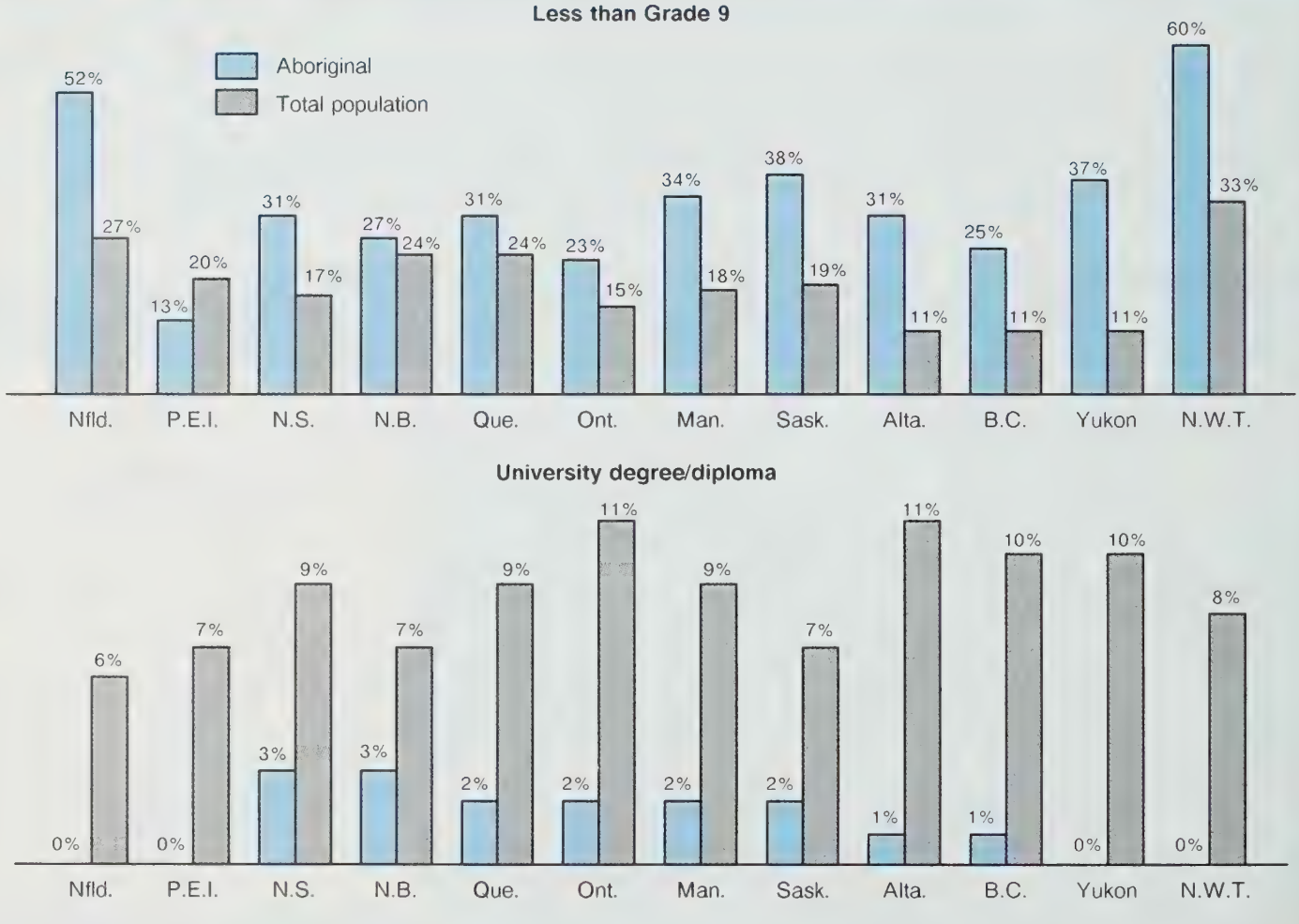
Of Aboriginal families living off reserve, 23% were headed by lone parents, compared with 12% of all Canadian families. Women constituted 87% of off-reserve Aboriginal lone parents, whereas 83% of all Canadian lone-parent families were headed by women.

Education levels

In general, Aboriginal people in Canada have much lower levels of educational attainment than the overall Canadian population. In 1986, 41% of off-reserve Aboriginals aged 15 and over had less than a Grade 9 education, and only 2% had completed university. In contrast, 17% of Canadians aged 15 and

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Educational attainment of Aboriginal people[1] living off reserve and total population, 1986



[1] Single origin only.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-110 and Employment Equity Program.

over had less than a Grade 9 education, and 10% were university graduates. That same year, 17% of Aboriginal people had some non-university postsecondary education, close to the overall Canadian figure of 21%.

Levels of educational attainment also varied by province. Newfoundland had the highest percentage of Aboriginal people with less than a Grade 9 education (52%), whereas Ontario had the lowest at 23%. This compared with 27% and 15% of the respective overall population. Among those whose highest level of educational attainment was a high school diploma, the rates were highest in the province of Quebec for both off-reserve Aboriginals (12%) and for provincial residents (16%). Nova Scotia and New Brunswick had the highest percentages of Aboriginal university graduates (3%), while this was the case for 9% and 7% of the respective provincial populations.

Labour force characteristics

Aboriginal people living off reserve were less likely to participate in the labour force than were Canadians overall. In 1986, 66% of Aboriginal men participated in the labour force, compared with 77% of all Canadian men. Aboriginal women also participated less in the labour force (45%), compared with 55% of all Canadian women.

Those who did participate in the labour force were more likely than Canadians overall to be unemployed. In 1986, the unemployment rate for Aboriginal people living off reserve (28%) was almost triple the rate for all Canadians (10%). The unemployment rate for Aboriginal women (27%) was slightly lower than the rate for Aboriginal men (29%). This contrasts sharply with rates for the entire Canadian population where unemployment was lower for men (9.6%) than it was for women (11.2%).

Unemployment rates were highest for Aboriginal people living off reserve in Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, and British Columbia at about 40%. The lowest rates (18%) were found in both Quebec and Ontario. The Prairie provinces showed the greatest discrepancies between the unemployment rate for provincial residents and the rate for Aboriginals. Aboriginal people living off reserve in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta had unemployment rates of over 30%, while in each of the three provinces, the overall unemployment rate for all provincial residents was less than 10%.

While unemployment and participation rates reveal activity in the labour force, they do not reflect those who are discouraged and stop looking for work. A higher proportion of the male and female Aboriginal population was not in the labour force (34% and 55%, respectively), than was the case among Canadians overall (23% for men and 44% for women). However, Aboriginal people living a traditional lifestyle also would be included with those not in the labour force.

Aboriginal people who were employed in the labour force were concentrated in different industries than Canadians overall. Off-reserve Aboriginals were twice as likely as the entire Canadian population to be employed in government services (15% compared with 8%), and were less likely than the overall Canadian population to be employed in the retail and finance sectors (10% compared with 17%). The Aboriginal population living off reserve also showed a notably lower participation rate in manufacturing (12%), where 17% of the Canadian labour force was employed.

Income characteristics

Aboriginal Canadians had much lower incomes than the overall Canadian population. In 1985, the average income of Aboriginal men living off reserve was $14,300, while the average income of all Canadian men was $23,200. Aboriginal women earned $9,000 on average, compared with $12,900 for all Canadian women.

An even greater inequality is revealed when median incomes are compared. In 1985, 50% of Aboriginal men living off reserve were earning less than $9,800, while for all Canadian men, 50% earned

Labour force participation rates and average income[1] for off-reserve Aboriginals[2] and total population aged 15 and over, 1986

	Men				Women			
	Participation rate		Average income		Participation rate		Average income	
	Aboriginal	Total	Aboriginal	Total	Aboriginal	Total	Aboriginal	Total
	%		$		%		$	
Newfoundland	55.0	70.7	10,679	17,582	41.0	48.9	6,589	9,876
Prince Edward Island	50.0	75.8	N/A	16,988	77.8	56.1	N/A	10,223
Nova Scotia	71.3	73.6	13,010	20,429	50.8	50.1	9,036	11,017
New Brunswick	58.2	71.9	16,112	18,882	45.5	50.0	7,419	10,293
Quebec	73.3	74.6	18,333	21,593	49.4	50.7	10,516	11,992
Ontario	72.7	78.9	16,518	25,145	51.3	58.7	9,824	13,422
Manitoba	63.2	77.0	12,068	21,448	40.5	55.6	8,064	11,803
Saskatchewan	63.0	78.0	11,208	21,340	37.8	54.5	8,280	11,747
Alberta	63.8	82.1	13,465	25,145	44.3	62.0	8,741	13,454
British Columbia	68.0	75.8	14,147	23,908	44.5	55.0	8,426	12,716
Yukon	68.0	85.8	11,733	22,816	58.9	73.0	9,880	15,261
Northwest Territories	59.6	76.5	13,292	23,900	45.5	61.6	9,360	15,037
Canada	**66.4**	**77.0**	**14,267**	**23,265**	**45.2**	**55.4**	**9,015**	**12,615**

[1] From all sources in 1985.
[2] Single origin only.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 93-111, 93-114 and Employment Equity Program.



less than $20,800. The median income for Aboriginal women living off reserve was $7,200, while for Canadian women overall, the figure was $10,800. This suggests that Aboriginal incomes are more concentrated at lower levels compared to the whole population.

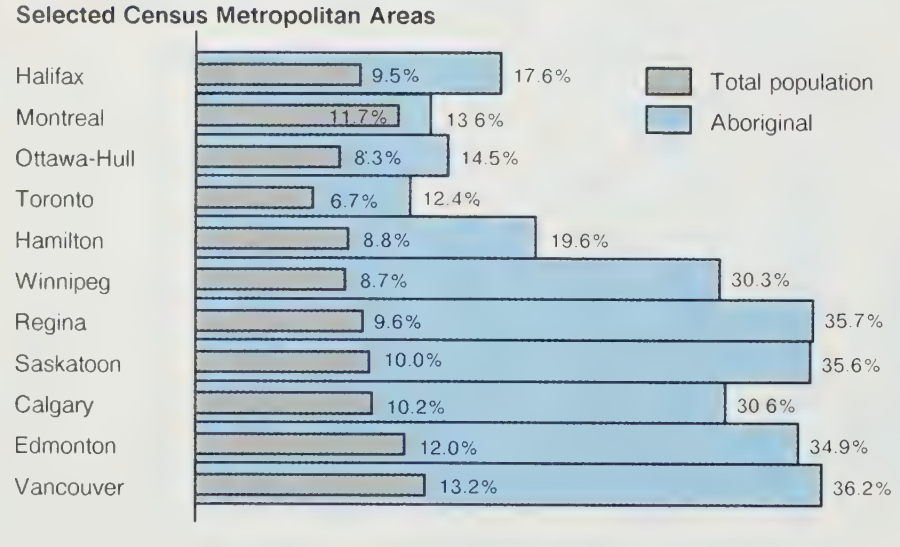
Comparisons of income within the off-reserve population reveal substantial provincial differences. Aboriginal men living in Newfoundland had the lowest average income ($10,800), followed by Saskatchewan ($11,200). Incomes were highest for Aboriginal men living off reserve in Quebec and Ontario, where average income was $18,300 and $16,500, respectively. Similarly, the incomes of Aboriginal women were highest in Quebec and Ontario and lowest in Newfoundland.

Like most Canadians, Aboriginal people living off reserve derive most of their income from employment. However, Aboriginals rely more on income from government transfer payments (welfare and unemployment insurance), and less on employment income and income from investments and retirement funds than do Canadians overall. In 1985, employment earnings accounted for 73% of Aboriginal people's income, compared with 79% for all Canadians. Transfer payments to Aboriginal people living off reserve amounted to 24% of their total income, more than double the percentage for the entire Canadian population. Only 3% of the income of off-reserve Aboriginals was derived from investment and retirement funds, compared with 10% of the total income of all Canadians.

Aboriginals living off reserve in Ontario had the largest proportion of income from employment (79%), while those in Saskatchewan had the lowest (61%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rates of Aboriginal people[1] living off reserve and total population, 1986



[1] Single origin only.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529 and Employment Equity Program.

Urban Aboriginal population

In 1986, 31% of the off-reserve population lived in 11 of Canada's largest census metropolitan areas (CMAs). These CMAs — Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa-Hull, Toronto, Hamilton, Winnipeg, Regina, Saskatoon, Calgary, Edmonton, and Vancouver — together accounted for 47% of the Canadian population. The off-reserve Aboriginal population was more heavily concentrated in large urban areas of western Canada than in eastern CMAs.

Winnipeg had the largest number of Aboriginal people of all CMAs (13,500), or 6% of the entire off-reserve population. Vancouver ranked second with 11,100 (5%), and Edmonton third with 10,900 (5%). Toronto and Montreal, the two largest CMAs in Canada had only 3% and 4%, respectively, of the off-reserve population.

Off-reserve Indians in the United States

Substantial differences exist between the Aboriginal populations of Canada and the United States. In the United States, Aboriginal people constitute a much smaller proportion of the population. American Indians are more heavily concentrated in certain geographic areas than their Canadian counterparts, and are more likely to live outside of "designated areas" (reservations, villages, tribal trust lands, and historic areas).

The 1980 Census of the United States identified 1,423,000 Native Indian, Aleut and Eskimo people living in the United States. While the Aboriginal population in the United States is roughly twice the size of Canada's, it constitutes a significantly smaller proportion of the entire population. In Canada, people who identified themselves as having Aboriginal origins accounted for about 3% of the overall population (1986), compared with slightly less than 1% of the overall American population (1980).

In 1980, 63% of American Aboriginals were living outside of designated areas. Areas designated for native occupation include reservations (24%), historic areas of Oklahoma — lands that were reservations before Oklahoma became a state in 1907 (8%), Alaska native villages (3%), and tribal trust lands (2%). About 75% of the Aboriginal population in the United States lived outside of the 278 federal and state reservations. This proportion is higher than it was in Canada in 1986, where 60% of the Aboriginal population lived outside of the 2,234 federal reserves.

In Canada, the off-reserve Aboriginal population is dispersed relatively evenly compared to the United States where the Aboriginal population is highly concentrated in several regions. Of the total Aboriginal population, 46% lived in four southwestern states — California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. Of those not living on reservations, 36% lived in only two states — California (19%) and Oklahoma (17%). Other states with a large proportion of the off-reserve population were North Carolina (6%), Washington (4%), Arizona (4%), and Michigan (4%).

1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey

Making accurate and meaningful comparisons between the Aboriginal and total Canadian populations is difficult. Questions arise regarding the appropriateness of certain statistics. For example, using the Canadian school system to measure educational attainment does not capture the benefit of a traditional native education. Likewise, income may not be the best means of determining development and self-sufficiency for Aboriginal people who live a traditional lifestyle and have different cultural values, such as the sharing of resources within a community.

To develop a more accurate statistical profile, Statistics Canada plans to conduct a post-censal survey of Aboriginal people. Information from the 1991 Census will be used to select approximately 160,000 people with Aboriginal origins. The survey was developed in consultation with Aboriginal organizations throughout the country. The information gathered will help develop a more detailed socio-demographic profile of the Aboriginal population living on and off reserves, and will also determine barriers encountered by Aboriginal people in areas such as employment, education, training, language, and housing.

In 1986, 3% of the populations of Regina and Saskatoon were Aboriginal people living off reserve. In Winnipeg, Aboriginal people constituted 2.1% of the city's population, compared with just 0.2% of Toronto's and 0.3% of Montreal's populations.

Aboriginals in major urban areas had somewhat lower unemployment rates and higher incomes than the overall off-reserve population. In 1986, the unemployment rate for Aboriginals living off reserve in the CMAs averaged 26%, compared with the national average of 28%. From Halifax to Hamilton, their unemployment rates ranged from 12% to 20%, compared with 30% to 36% from Winnipeg to Vancouver where more of the urban Aboriginal population is concentrated. Aboriginal people living in Toronto had the lowest unemployment rate at 12%, while those in Vancouver had the highest at 36%.

The average income for Aboriginal men was approximately $1,000 higher in the 11 CMAs than the national average for Aboriginal men living off reserve. Aboriginal men living off reserve in Montreal had the highest incomes, averaging $22,700. Montreal was also the only city examined in which Aboriginal men with single origins earned more on average, than those with a mixed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal background. Aboriginal people in Winnipeg had the lowest average incomes, $11,700 for men, and $8,500 for women. Women's incomes were greatest in the National Capital Region of Ottawa-Hull, where average income exceeded $14,000.

Prosperity and attitudes vary by province

The single origin Aboriginal population (those with a purely Aboriginal ancestry) were more economically disadvantaged than were those of mixed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal descent. Aboriginal people living off reserves and settlements experienced a greater degree of economic disparity by province than did the Canadian population overall. On average, Aboriginal people living off reserve in western Canada had lower incomes and higher unemployment rates than did those living in the east.

Along with economic disparity, public attitudes toward native issues also varied by province. According to opinion polls conducted in 1986, people in western provinces were best informed of native issues; however, they were least supportive of them. People in Quebec, on the other hand, tended to be least knowledgeable, but were most supportive.

Ryan J. McDonald *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

CHANGING OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE

by Jeff [illegible]



Heading into the 21st century, Canada's labour force continues to undergo major transformations. Some occupations common at the turn of the last century have all but disappeared, to be replaced by those in informatics and high-tech industries.

Clerical and professional occupations, common to the information and service industries, have come to predominance, replacing those in agriculture, once the largest occupational group. Sharp provincial differences exist in the distribution of most groups. In addition, while women are a major part of the labour force, they remain heavily concentrated in a few occupational groups, and within these groups, occupy low-paying, low status positions.

Technological changes, world market forces, and decisions made by corporate and political leaders have all played a role in shaping Canada's present occupational structure, and will likely continue to do so in the future.

Historical variations

Growth in Canada's labour force has not been distributed evenly among the 12 major occupational groups. For example, the number of people in clerical occupations increased faster than the average growth for all occupations in recent decades. Only between 1981 and 1986 was growth slower than the average (3% compared with 7%). The professional group has also expanded faster than the average throughout most of the century. Furthermore, the increase in the number of people in professional occupations has been well above the average since 1951. For example, between 1981 and 1986, they increased at a rate of 14%.

With the exception of a slight growth between 1981 and 1986, the number of people in agriculture declined in every ten-year period since 1931. Although the growth in manufacturing/mechanical occupations was above the average for all occupations from 1921 to 1951, it was below average for the next three decades, and actually declined 4% between 1981 and 1986.

Because of the variations in growth, the distribution of people in various occupations has changed considerably. For example, because of their rapid growth, clerical and professional occupations have risen from relatively low proportions of the labour force early in this century, to form the two largest groups. In 1986, they accounted for 18% and 16%, respectively, of all occupations, up from just under 4% each in 1911.

Accompanying these gains has been a dramatic decrease in agricultural occupations. By 1986, they constituted 4% of all occupations, down considerably from 34% in 1911. Despite industrial changes in Canada over the century, the proportion of manufacturing/mechanical occupations has remained relatively stable. In 1986, they accounted for 16% of all occupations, compared with their 1911 level of 14%.

Provincial variations

The distribution of most groups varies widely among the provinces, and is now substantially different from that found in 1911, when agricultural occupations accounted for the largest proportion of all occupations in each province. In 1986, the clerical group constituted the largest proportion in five provinces: Nova Scotia (16%), Ontario (19%), Manitoba (17%), Alberta (18%), and British Columbia (17%), while manufacturing/mechanical occupations dominated in three other provinces: Newfoundland (17%), New Brunswick (16%), and Quebec (18%). Service occupations were dominant in Prince Edward Island (15%), and not surprisingly, agricultural occupations were the largest group in Saskatchewan (19%).

Unlike most of the other occupational groups, the distribution of the professional group is fairly consistent across the country. In 1986, the proportion of labour force participants in professional occupations ranged from 17% in Quebec to 14% in Prince Edward Island. Transportation occupations

Contributions to GDP

The shift in prominence from agricultural to information-related occupations is mirrored by their respective contributions to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). By 1986, the community, business, and personal services industries accounted for 20% of the GDP, up from 12% in 1926. Over the same time, the finance, insurance, and real estate industries increased their contribution to 14% from the earlier level of 10%. Meanwhile, the agricultural industry contributed 3% to the GDP in 1986, down from 18% in 1926.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Changing distribution of major occupational groups, 1911-1986



[1] Managerial, transportation, construction, forestry, fishing and mining occupations.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada and Catalogue 93-151.

Labour force participation, by occupational group and province, 1911, 1951 and 1986

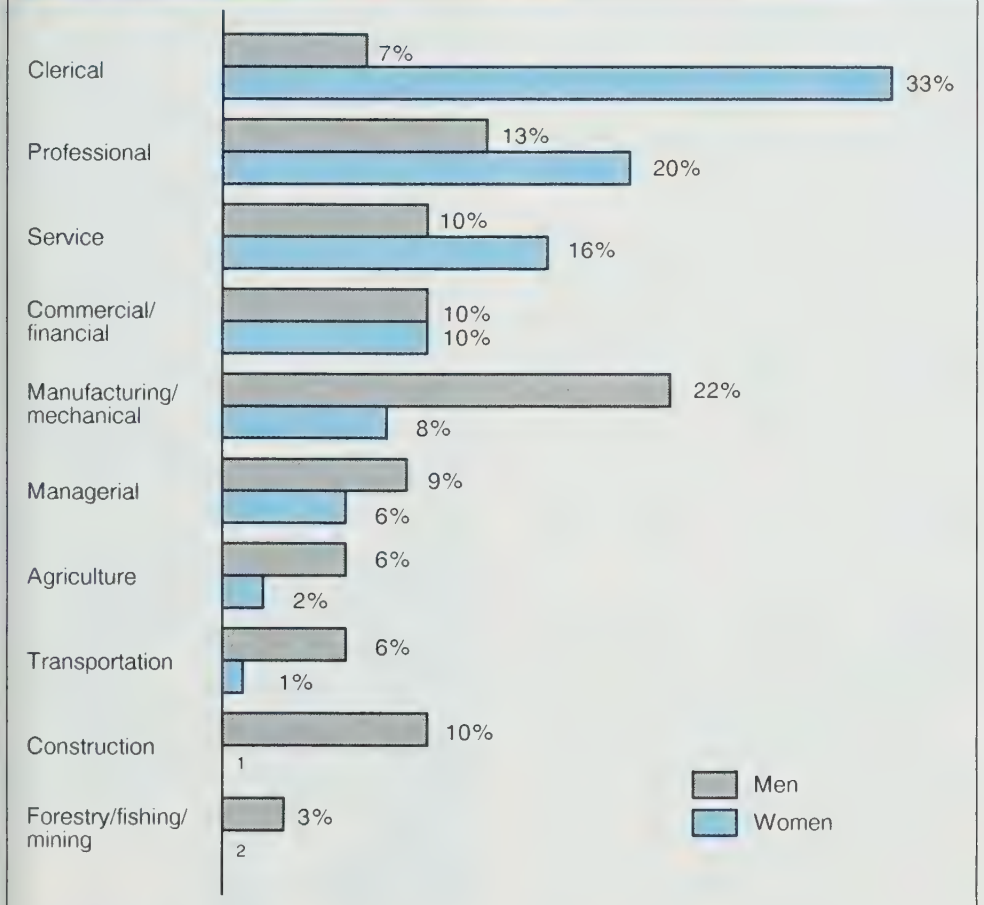
	Occupational groups											
	Clerical	Professional	Service	Commercial/ financial	Manufacturing/ mechanical	Managerial	Agriculture	Transportation[1]	Construction	Forestry	Fishing	Mining
	%											
Newfoundland												
1911	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1951	6	5	10	5	10	6	4	10	7	9	17	2
1986	15	15	13	8	17	6	1	4	9	2	5	1
Prince Edward Island												
1911	2	4	6	3	7	3	62	3	3	.2	4	.06
1951	5	6	11	5	7	6	38	7	5	1	6	.04
1986	14	14	15	7	13	6	9	4	7	1	6	.1
Nova Scotia												
1911	3	4	8	3	11	4	28	6	4	2	8	10
1951	8	7	14	6	12	7	11	9	6	2	5	5
1986	16	16	15	10	14	6	3	4	7	1	2	1
New Brunswick												
1911	3	4	7	4	11	3	38	5	4	4	2	1
1951	8	7	10	6	12	7	16	10	5	9	3	1
1986	16	15	14	9	16	6	3	4	8	2	1	1
Quebec												
1911	3	4	8	5	17	5	32	6	5	2	1	1
1951	10	8	9	6	20	7	13	8	6	2	.4	1
1986	18	17	12	10	18	8	3	4	5	1	.1	.3
Ontario												
1911	5	4	8	5	18	5	31	6	5	1	.4	2
1951	13	8	10	7	21	8	11	7	6	1	.2	1
1986	19	16	12	10	18	9	3	3	5	.3	.04	.3
Manitoba												
1911	5	4	9	6	8	5	39	7	5	.2	.2	1
1951	11	6	10	7	12	7	25	8	5	.4	1	1
1986	17	16	13	9	13	7	9	4	6	.3	.2	1
Saskatchewan												
1911	2	2	5	3	3	4	64	4	4	.2	1	.3
1951	6	6	8	6	5	7	49	7	3	.2	1	.3
1986	14	15	13	9	9	6	19	3	6	.3	.05	1
Alberta												
1911	3	3	6	3	5	5	50	5	5	.4	1	3
1951	8	7	10	7	8	7	33	7	5	.4	.3	2
1986	18	17	13	9	11	8	7	4	7	.3	.01	1
British Columbia												
1911	4	4	9	5	11	6	12	8	7	6	2	7
1951	11	8	12	8	15	9	6	10	6	4	1	2
1986	17	15	15	11	14	7	3	4	6	2	1	1
Canada												
1911	**4**	**4**	**8**	**5**	**14**	**5**	**34**	**6**	**5**	**2**	**1**	**2**
1951	**11**	**7**	**10**	**7**	**17**	**8**	**16**	**8**	**6**	**2**	**1**	**1**
1986	**18**	**16**	**13**	**10**	**16**	**8**	**4**	**4**	**6**	**1**	**.3**	**1**

* Data not available for Newfoundland in 1911.
[1] Data for 1911 and 1951 include "Communication".
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada and Catalogue 93-151.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of labour force participants, by major occupational group and sex, 1986



[1] Women — 0.3%.
[2] Women — 0.2%.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-151.

were even more uniformly distributed across the country. In 1986, the proportion was 3% to 4% in all provinces.

Gender differences

During this century, the number of women in the labour force has increased. The two periods of fastest growth were 1971-1981 and 1951-1961, when the number of women increased by 64% and 52%, respectively. By 1986, women accounted for 43% of the people involved in all occupations, up considerably from 13% in 1911.

Despite this increased involvement, women are heavily concentrated in only 3 of the 12 occupational groups. In 1986, 69% of all women in the labour force were in clerical, professional, and service occupations.

Men are more evenly distributed among the occupational groups. In 1986, 65% of all men in the labour force were in five groups: manufacturing/mechanical, professional, service, commercial/financial, and construction.

The occupational distribution of women in the labour force differs considerably from that of men. The largest difference existed in clerical occupations. In 1986, 33% of female labour force participants were in this category, compared with only 7% of men. Also, clerical occupational involvement among women has increased dramatically over the years, rising from 10% of the female labour force in 1911 to around 30% since 1961. The increase for men has not been nearly as dramatic, rising from 3% in 1911.

The commercial/financial occupational group was the only major group that had the same proportions of participation by men and women. Ten percent of both male and female labour force participants were engaged in these types of occupations in 1986. However, a greater proportion of men had supervisory positions, while women were mainly in sales positions.

The proportion of women in service and manufacturing/mechanical occupations has declined since 1911, while that of men has increased. In 1986, 16% of female labour force participants were involved in service occupations. The corresponding percentage for manufacturing/mechanical was 8%. These proportions are down from 37% and 26%, respectively in 1911. In contrast, in 1986, 10% of male labour force participants were involved in service occupations and 22% in manufacturing/mechanical occupations, up from their 1911 rates of 3% and 12%, respectively.



Of the 12 major occupational groups, only 3 contained a majority of female participants in 1986: clerical (79%), professional (54%), and service (54%). This was a change from 1911 when only service occupations contained a majority of women (65%). Although women made up the majority of people in professional occupations in 1986, they were concentrated in the teaching and medicine fields, and within these fields, generally occupied positions with lower pay and status relative to their male counterparts.

Age groups

Most labour force participants are aged 25-44, and with the aging of the baby-boom generation, the concentration of people in this age range has been increasing in most occupational groups. In 1986, 53% of the people in all occupations were aged 25-44, up from 47% in 1951.

The commercial/financial and agricultural groups were exceptions to this trend. In 1986, 46% of commercial/financial occupations involved people aged 25-44, down from 48% in 1951. This decline was accompanied by a corresponding increase in the proportion of 45-64-year-olds. Agricultural occupations also had fewer labour force participants aged 25-44: 36% in 1986, down from 39% in 1951. During the same period, an increase occurred in the proportion of people in agriculture aged 15-24 and 65 years and over. In fact, this was the only group in which the proportion of oldest labour force participants increased. In 1986, 9% of the people in agricultural occupations were aged 65 or over, a slight increase from 7% in 1971, and from 8% in 1951.

In contrast to relative decreases in the agricultural and commercial/financial sectors, the concentration of people aged 25-44 is especially prevalent in managerial and professional occupations. By 1986, 61% and 63%, respectively, of labour force participants in these occupations were in this age group.

At the same time, managerial occupations have the largest share of people in the 45-64 age group. However, the proportion has declined since the 1950s. Labour force participants in this age category constituted 31% of all the people in managerial occupations in 1986, down from 40% in 1951. This decline may be a reflection of early retirement incentives and administrative downsizing, as well as demographics.

Perhaps the most important shift in occupations that cannot be explained in large part by demographic trends, occurred among young adults. In 1986, the representation of people aged 15-24 was highest in service occupations (34%), while in 1951 the highest proportion of this age group was in clerical occupations (40%). This was largely due to the proportion of service occupations filled by people in this age group, which increased from 27% in 1951. In contrast, the proportion of clerical occupations filled by those aged 15-24 declined to 26% in 1986.

High wages or low?

Abstracted from Garnet Picot, John Myles, and Ted Wannell, "Good Jobs/Bad Jobs and the Declining Middle: 1967-1986", Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Paper No. 28.

Since World War II, rising real wages and high employment levels have brought higher living standards to broad sectors of the labour force, including working class, blue-collar, and industrial workers. Rapid growth in professional, technical, and managerial occupations also contributed to this development. Until the early 1970s, expectations were that these trends would continue.

Since then, however, there has been increased speculation that the Canadian economy may no longer have the capacity to continue generating the types of jobs and wages necessary to continue increasing living standards. Structural changes within the economy, such as the rapid growth in the service sector, the movement of women into the labour force, technological change, and the contracting out of services to low-wage paying firms, have contributed to this speculation. There are indications that in 1986, there were proportionately more workers earning either high or low wages and fewer workers earning mid-range wages than in 1967.

During the 1970s, all of the increases at the bottom earnings level were due to the combined effect of the gap in earnings between men and women, and the increased participation of women in the labour force. During the 1980s, however, women's participation in the labour force and the changing industrial and occupational mix of jobs did not account for the movement away from middle-wage paying jobs. Rather, at least to 1986, the increase in the number of low-paying jobs was mainly due to declining relative wages among the young. This decline occurred in all regions of the country, among both sexes, within all industrial and occupational groups.

Jeff O'Neill *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

To those of you who need in-depth information about the labour market ...

... Statistics Canada introduces ***Labour Force Annual Averages 1990*** — a brand-new reference publication created specifically to meet those needs. With detailed data ... Quick-reference summaries and graphs ... Geographical breakdowns in unprecedented detail ... More variables and cross classifications than published in the monthly issues of *The Labour Force.*

The ***Labour Force Annual Averages 1990*** covers:

- time loss and absenteeism by industry and province;
- full-time and part-time employment by industry and province;
- occupations for Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) and economic regions;
- industries for CMAs and economic regions;
- labour market participation and family responsibilities by province;
- hours worked by industry and occupation, by sex, age and province;
- and more.

Labour Force Annual Averages 1990. Part and parcel of Statistics Canada's customer-driven approach to business information.



Labour Force Annual Averages 1990 (catalogue number 71-220) is available for $39 in Canada, US$47 in the United States and US$55 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. Or contact the Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre nearest you. (A list of centres appears in this publication.)

For faster service FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or Master Card.

FALLING THROUGH THE CRACKS:

WOMEN AGED 55-64 LIVING ON THEIR OWN

by Mary Anne Burke and Aron Spector



Many women aged 55-64 living on their own are economically disadvantaged and have difficulty accessing adequate, appropriate and affordable housing. Like other people living alone, women in this group are eligible for minimal levels of social assistance and in many cases are either ineligible or not a priority for social housing. The Council on Aging of Ottawa-Carleton portrayed these women accurately as "too young yet too old": too young to receive old age income supplements or access to subsidized housing, yet often viewed as too old for the labour market.

Recent trends have contributed to a growth in the number of women aged 55-64 living on their own. Divorces have increased following legislated reforms in 1968, remarriage rates among divorced women remain low, and the mortality rate of those under age 65 continues to decline. These trends, combined with a 7% growth in the total number of women aged 55-64 and an increasing tendency of women in this age group to live alone, have resulted in a large increase in the cohort of women aged 55-64 living on their own (hereafter referred to as the cohort) through the 1980s. Indications are that growth will continue over the next two decades, with considerable changes in the marital status distribution within the cohort.

More women aged 55-64 living on their own

Most women aged 55-64 live with family members. However, since the beginning of the 1970s, there has been continued growth in the number of women this age living on their own.[1] Between 1981 and 1986, total growth amounted to about 40,000 women — a 22% increase in only five years — bringing the size of the cohort to 226,000. By 1986, 29% of women aged 55-64 lived on their own, up from 17% in 1981.

The growth in the number of women living on their own varied considerably by marital status. The proportion of older never-married women living alone increased particularly sharply in the early 1980s. By 1986, 68% of never-married women aged 55-64 lived by themselves, up from 51% in 1981. The proportion of widows this age living alone also rose over the same period, to 59% from 53%. For separated women, however, the proportion was relatively stable at just under 90%.

Divorced women major factor

Much of the growth in the size of the cohort can be attributed to the rising number of divorced women living on their own.

During the first half of the 1980s, their numbers increased by 62%, and by 1986, divorced women accounted for 18% of the cohort, up from 14% in 1981.

Since World War II, most women in the cohort have been widows; however, the proportion has been declining. By 1986, widows made up 49% of women in the cohort, down from 54% in 1981.

Never-married women accounted for almost the same proportion of the total cohort in both 1981 and 1986 (22%). The same was true for separated women, who made up 11% of the cohort in both years.

Educational attainment

Women aged 55-64 living on their own tend to have a level of education very similar to that of other women this age. Also, for all women this age, improvements in educational attainment have occurred over time. The proportion of the cohort with less than a Grade 9 education declined to 31% in 1986 from about 35% in 1981.

Within the cohort, education level varies with marital status. Widows and separated women tend to have considerably less formal education than never-married and divorced women. For example, in 1986, only 15% of widows were postsecondary school graduates, compared with 37% of never-married women.

Labour force participation

Women in the cohort are more likely than other women this age to be in the labour force. In 1986, 45% of those living on their own, up from 41% in 1981, participated in the labour force, compared with 34% of other women aged 55-64 in both years. The increased labour force participation of the cohort can be attributed, in large part, to the rise in the number of divorced women in the cohort, whose participation rate tends to be relatively high.

Similar to patterns in the general population, labour force participation of women in the cohort is related to both marital status and education. For example, in 1986, participation rates were much lower for widows (35%) than for never-married (58%) and divorced (56%) women. Also, only 30% of women in the cohort with less than a Grade 9 education were in the labour force in 1986, while 80% of those with a postsecondary degree or diploma participated.

Compared to other women aged 55-64, those living on their own tended to have a higher unemployment rate. The unemployment rate of women in the cohort was 9.5% in 1986, compared with 8.2% for other women this age.

Within the cohort, unemployment varied by marital status. Widows and separated women were most likely to have been unemployed in 1986, with a rate of 10.0%. Among other women, the unemployment rate was lower: 8.5% for divorced women and 6.5% for never-married women.

Occupational distribution

As with the total female labour force, women in the cohort were concentrated in clerical and service occupations. In 1986, one-half of labour force participants in the cohort were in such occupations. Still, the proportion of these women in managerial, administrative, and related occupations increased to 6% in 1986 from 4% in 1981.

Women in the cohort who have relatively low levels of educational attainment, mainly widows and separated women, tend to be concentrated in low-paying, low status occupations. About 45% of those with a high school diploma were in service occupations, and close to 40% of those with a high school diploma and/or some postsecondary education were in clerical occupations.

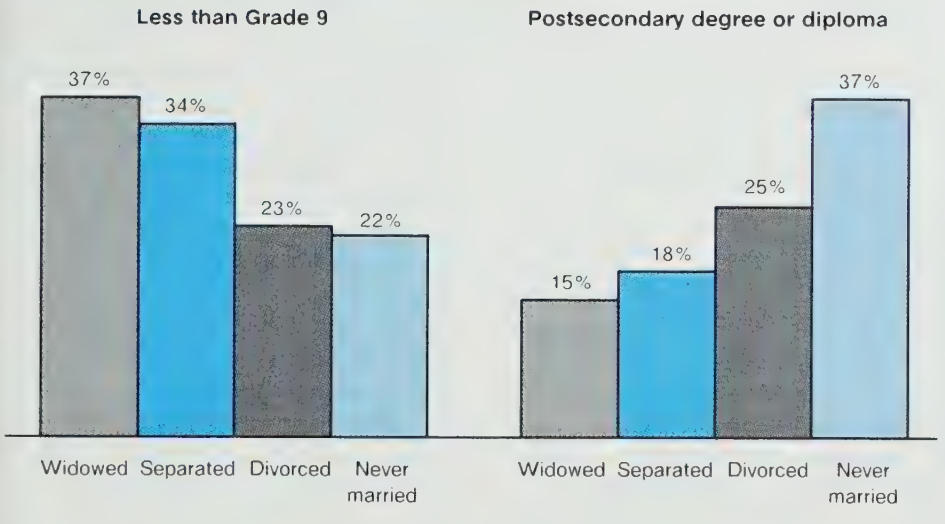
On the other hand, those with a higher formal education, often never-married or divorced women, were more likely to be in teaching or medical and health professions. About one-third of the cohort with a postsecondary degree or diploma were in these occupations, which tend to be higher-paying than service and clerical occupations.

Income

Older women living by themselves tend to have relatively low incomes. In 1985,

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Educational attainment of women aged 55-64 living alone, by marital status, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Public Use Individual Microdata File.

[1] In this article people living on their own refers to those living alone or with people to whom they are not related. In fact, of women aged 55-64 not living with family members, the vast majority (88%) lived alone in 1988.

the average income of women in the cohort was $14,700, 24% below that of comparable males and 56% below that of all families and unattached individuals.

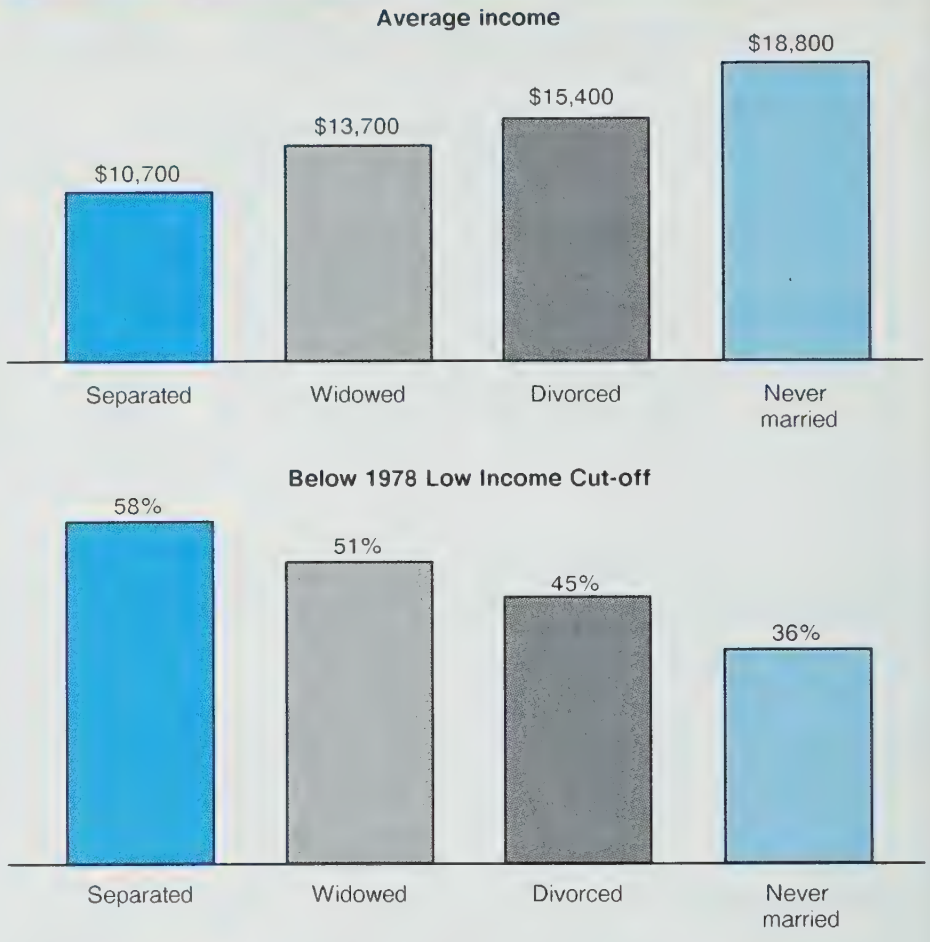
Average income varies substantially, depending on a woman's marital status. In 1985, separated women aged 55-64 living on their own had the lowest average income, at just $10,700, followed by widows ($13,700) and divorced women ($15,400). Never-married women in the cohort, who tend to have relatively high levels of education and job experience, had the highest average income ($18,800). Even so, their income was almost 15% lower than that of comparable males.

Not only do many of the women in the cohort have relatively low incomes, but many do not have adequate financial assets to keep them out of a low-income situation either now or in the future. Also, women have generally had less opportunity than men to accumulate assets. In 1976, for example, the asset base for women aged 55-64 living on their own averaged 56% that of comparable men.

Furthermore, in 1985, an estimated 30% of single women experienced a decrease in their asset base. In contrast, just over 25% increased their assets through savings or other means.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

1985 income profile of women aged 55-64 living alone



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Public Use Individual Microdata File.

Sources of income

In general, wages, investments and pensions tend to be the major sources of income for women in the cohort. Most (56%) do not receive earnings income (wages and salaries or business or unemployment benefits), which tend to be the most lucrative source of income for these women. Given their low participation in the labour force, it is not surprising that widows and separated women are the least likely to receive income from earnings. In 1985, 37% of widows and 45% of separated women in the cohort received earnings income. The proportions were higher for divorced women (54%) and, in particular, for never-married women (60%).

Never-married women, who have often worked for a long time, and widows, who, through the death of their spouse, have had full access to family financial assets, were more likely than other women in the cohort to have investment and pension income. In 1985, almost one-half of never-married women and widows received returns from investments, compared with about one-third of divorced and separated women. Likewise, over 20% of never-married and widowed women received pension income, while just 10% of divorced and separated women received such income. In addition, more than one-half (56%) of widows received survivor benefits. Income from survivor benefits and other pensions tends to be extremely small, probably because of premature draw on these funds and the relatively low levels of benefits from older pension plans.

Many women in the cohort receive income from other sources, including alimony and government transfer payments. About 40% of widowed, divorced, and separated women received such income in 1985, compared with 20% of never-married women.

Low income

Approximately one-half of all women aged 55-64 living on their own had low incomes. The income levels of this cohort are a reflection of low labour force participation rates, concentrations in low-paying service and clerical occupations, and age and gender discrimination.

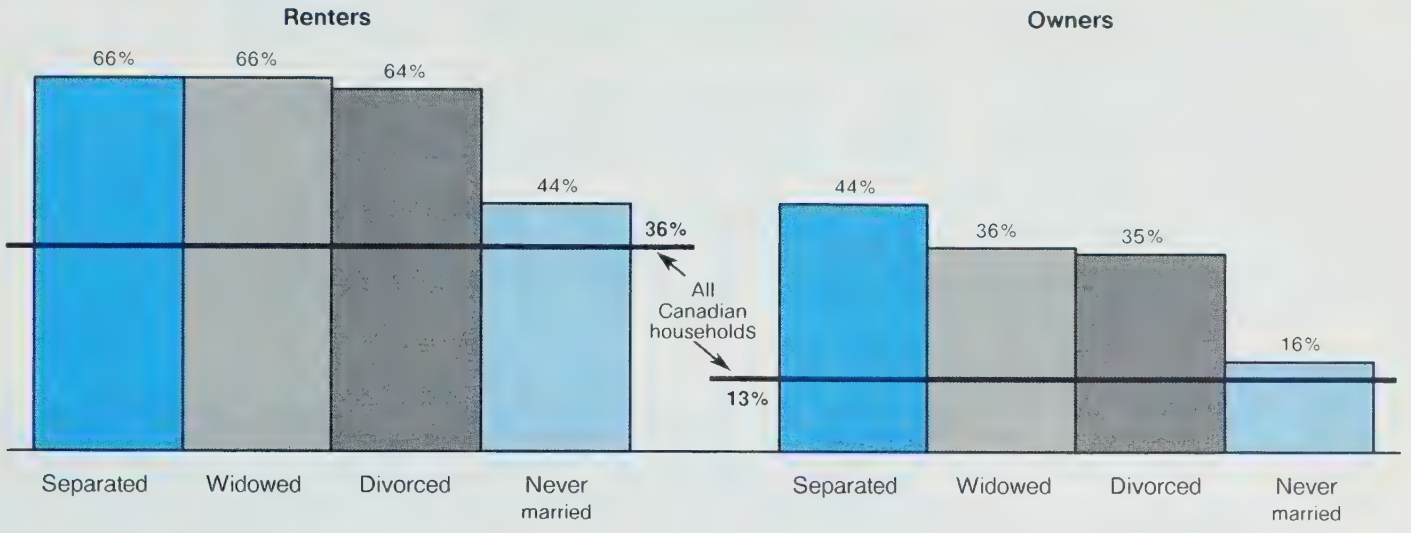
The incidence of low income in the cohort is particularly high among separated, widowed, and divorced women. For many, this is, in large part, a result of predominant norms earlier in the century. Most of these women would have married during the 1940s and 1950s when, for women, educational attainment and labour force participation were low. Thus, many women aged 55-64 lack the necessary education, work experience, and job seniority to ease entry or re-entry into the labour force.

Recently separated women, while facing many of the same barriers as widowed and divorced women, are often even further economically disadvantaged. Unlike widows, separated women often do not have the same level of access to family savings and assets, including the family home.

Many divorced women in the cohort would have gone through divorce at a time when they may have been financially disadvantaged by divorce settlements. While divorced women are more likely than separated or widowed women to be in the labour force, their re-entry into the paid work force could possibly have been delayed by the presence of children. Thus, as lone parents, these women may have

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of women aged 55-64 living alone with housing affordability problems, by marital status, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada and 1986 Public Use Individual Microdata File.

been in a low-income situation for a relatively long time. Also, these women would have had little chance to build up financial assets or to contribute to pension plans. Given current divorce trends, it is likely that the incidence of low income in the cohort will continue to increase.

Housing

In 1986, almost one-half (49%) of women in the cohort owned their own homes. As with income, however, previous life history greatly affected the housing situation of these women. While the majority of widows (59%) owned their home, this was the case for about 40% of others in the cohort. The distribution of income and property during separation and divorce has kept many of these women away from home ownership. Also, while never-married women have higher incomes than others in the cohort, their average income is still relatively low and does not necessarily permit the purchase of a home.

Overall, in 1986, 39% of women aged 55-64 living by themselves owned their home outright (i.e. they had no mortgage). Widows in the cohort were most likely to have no outstanding mortgage (48%), while this was the case for roughly one-third of all other women in the cohort. Furthermore, those with mortgages had relatively small outstanding principals.

Many experience problems with housing affordability

Housing affordability is a major problem for a large proportion of women aged 55-64 living on their own. In 1986, approximately 105,000, or 46% of the group, were in households where over 30% of total income was allocated to housing. In contrast, 22% of all Canadian households had housing affordability problems.

Affordability problems are particularly severe for the 51% of the cohort who rent. In 1986, approximately two-thirds of divorced, separated, and widowed renters in the cohort were in households where more than 30% of their income went to rent. In fact, an average of 44% to 49% of income was dedicated to rent. Never-married women in the cohort fared somewhat better. While 44% had housing affordability problems, an average of 33% of income was spent on rent.

Many homeowners also experience affordability problems. In 1986, 44% of separated women and 35% of divorced women in this cohort were in households where more than 30% of income went towards shelter. Even among widows (one-half of whom own their home outright), dependence upon relatively low survival benefits and other investment/pension income results in housing affordability problems for many. In 1986, 36% of widowed homeowners were in households where more than 30% of income went to housing. In contrast, only 16% of never-married homeowners in the cohort were in such a position.

Lone parents vulnerable

Many lone parents, particularly women, enter a very vulnerable stage in their life cycle as they approach age 55. At this point, children "leave the nest" and child support, family allowance payments, and in many jurisdictions, eligibility for social housing programs cease for those between ages 55 and 59. Also, very little capacity for intergenerational income transfers exists for those who have been lone parents. Young people who have left home are often unable to provide financial support for their parents, because they tend to have relatively low incomes. At the same time, lone parents may not be in a position to lend money to their children for their education or to purchase major family-related items. One consequence of this is the increased risk that these children will enter into a low-income situation similar to their parents.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Editor with* Canadian Social Trends *and* **Aron Spector** *is an independent social housing consultant with ARK Research Associates.*

- For more information about people aged 55-64, see *Canadians in the Pre-retirement Years: A Profile of People Aged 55-64*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-521E.

COMMON LAW: A GROWING ALTERNATIVE

by Cam Stout

The number of Canadians living common law has increased substantially over the last decade. While common-law relationships are often considered a prelude to marriage for young adults, there is some evidence suggesting that common-law unions are becoming an alternative to marriage and to remarriage, following marital dissolution. Although the proportion of people in marriages has declined, the increase in the proportion living common law more than compensates for the decline. As a result, couple unions are more prevalent now than a decade ago.

Because partners in common-law unions are often young adults, it is not surprising that most people living common law have never been married. However, a considerable proportion of currently separated and divorced people are also in a common-law union.

Common law increasing

The proportion of adult Canadians in common-law unions doubled during the 1980s. According to the General Social Survey,[1] approximately 8% of Canadians aged 15 and over (1,589,000 people) were living in common-law unions in 1990, up from 5% in 1986 and 4% in 1981.

On the other hand, the percentage of legally married adults declined slightly over the same period. In 1990, 55% of the adult population were married (excludes separated people), down from 57% in 1981.

Consequently, common-law unions now account for a larger proportion of all couple unions than in the past. By 1990, 12% of all couples were in common-law relationships, up from 8% in 1986 and 6% in 1981.

Also, because the increase in the proportion of people in common-law unions offset the decrease in the proportion in marriages, couple unions are more prevalent now than at the beginning of the 1980s. In 1990, 63% of Canadians aged 15 and over were in couple unions, compared with 61% in 1981.

Provincial variations

The proportions of people in common-law and marital unions vary considerably by province, although marriage is by far the



[1] For more information on Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, see the Winter 1990 issue of **Canadian Social Trends**.

most prevalent type of couple union across the country. In general, provinces with a high proportion of their population living common law tend to have a relatively lower proportion of legally married people.

In 1990, Quebec had the highest percentage of residents aged 15 and over living in common-law unions (13%). Proportions dropped considerably, but were second highest in Alberta (8%), followed by British Columbia (7%). Common-law unions were least prevalent in New Brunswick (5%).

Quebec residents were the least likely to be in a marital union in 1990. That year, just 50% of people aged 15 and over in Quebec were legally married (excludes separated people). The proportion was also relatively low in British Columbia and Nova Scotia, where 54% of adults were married. Marriage was most common in Prince Edward Island, where 63% of the province's adult residents were married.

Despite these differences, the overall proportions of adults living in couple unions were very similar among the provinces. In 1990, percentages ranged from 60% in Nova Scotia and British Columbia, to 65% in Saskatchewan and Alberta.

Most common among young people

Younger people are more likely than older people to be in a common-law relationship. Among the few 15-19-year-olds living as couples, more were in common-law unions than in marital unions. In 1990, nearly 82% of all people aged 15-19 in a couple union were living common law. Fifty percent of couples aged 20-24 were in common-law unions. For subsequent age groups, common-law relationships decreased sharply as a proportion of all couples.

Age of partners rising

Between 1981 and 1990, the median age of both male and female common-law partners rose about three years. In 1990, one-half of men living common law were less than 32 years old, whereas in 1981, one-half had been under age 29. Similarly, among women, one-half were less than 29 years old in 1990, while one-half had been under age 26 in 1981.

Most common-law partners never married

Given that most common-law partners were relatively young in 1990, it is not surprising that the vast majority (63%) had never been legally married. That year, 28% of common-law partners were currently divorced, 7% were separated, and 2% were widowed.

Men in common-law unions were more likely than women to be currently divorced or separated. This was the case for 38% of men and 33% of women. Proportionately more women than men who were living common law in 1990 were never married.

Many divorced living common law

Overall, 21% of Canadians whose first marriage had ended in divorce were living common law in 1990. However, men whose first marriage had ended in divorce were more likely than comparable women to be in a common-law relationship (25% compared with 18%).

Among men whose first marriage had ended in divorce, those aged 25-34 were most likely to be in a common-law union (46%), followed by those aged 35-44 (29%) and 45-54 (24%). Among women whose first marriage had ended in divorce, common-law unions were most prevalent among those in the 25-34 age group (34%), followed by those aged 15-24 (22%) and 35-44 (20%).

In 1990, 20% of separated and never-married Canadians aged 18-64 were in a common-law union. Among the separated population, 26% of men and 15% of women were living common law. Conversely, 23% of never-married women and 17% of never-married men lived in common-law unions in 1990.

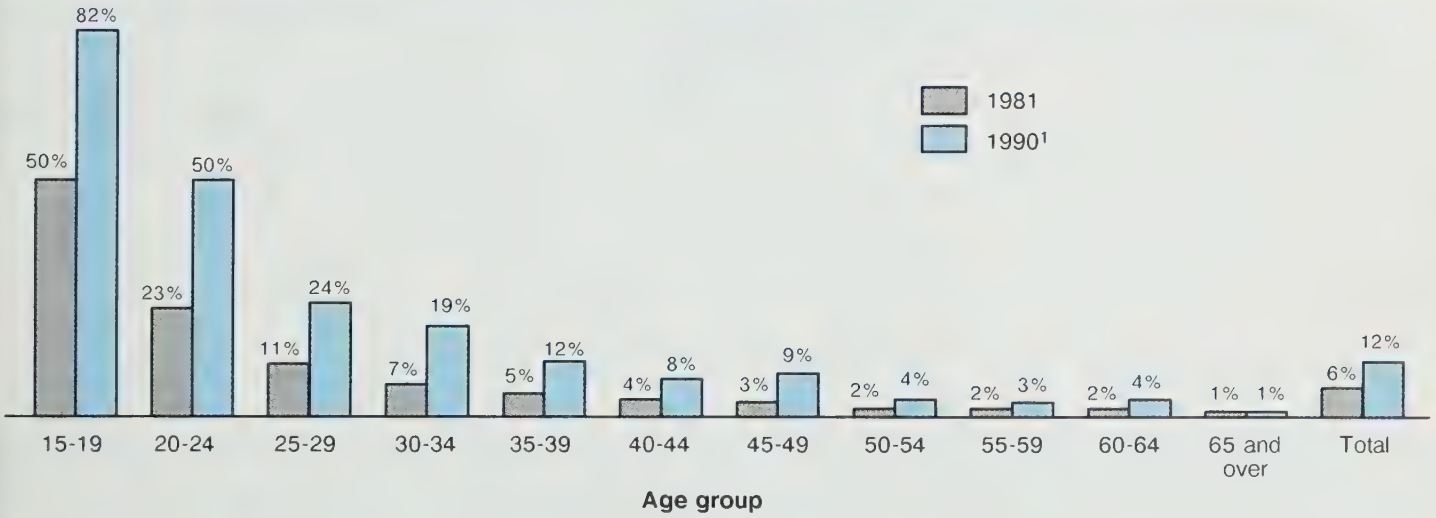
Ever having lived common law rising

The proportion of Canadians aged 18-64 who had ever lived common law nearly doubled between 1984 and 1990. In 1990, 28% of men had lived in at least one common-law relationship, up from 16% in 1984. Similarly, the proportion for women increased to 29% from 17% over the same period.

The proportion of people who had ever lived common law increased fastest among people aged 40-49. The percentage for men in that age group almost tripled, rising to 27% in 1990 from 10% in 1984. For women, the percentage more than doubled over the same period, to 21% from 10%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Common-law partners as a percentage of all people in couple unions, by age, 1981 and 1990[1]

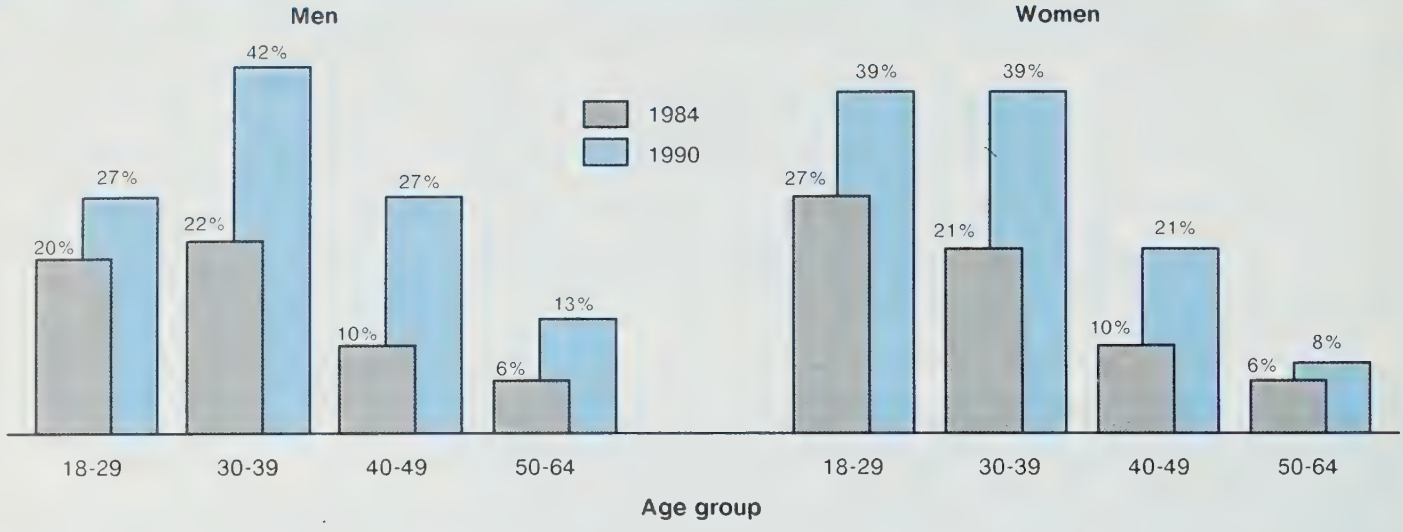


[1] Excludes Northwest and Yukon Territories.

Source: Turcotte, Pierre, "Common-law Unions: Nearly Half a Million in 1986", *Canadian Social Trends*, Autumn 1988 and General Social Survey, 1990.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of people ever in a common-law union, by age and sex, 1984 and 1990[1]



[1] Excludes Northwest and Yukon Territories.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-955 and General Social Survey, 1990.

Decreasing proportion ever married

In contrast to the trend for common-law unions, the proportion of Canadians who had ever been married was lower in 1990 than it had been in 1984. In 1990, 67% of men aged 18-64 had ever been married, down from 71% in 1984. The decline for women was somewhat less, with a drop to 74% from 76% over the same period.

For both men and women, the decline occurred almost exclusively among people under age 40. For example, among people aged 18-29, the proportion of men who had ever been married dropped from 34% in 1984 to 25% in 1990; the decline for women was from 45% to 38% over the same period. Among 30-39-year-olds, the proportion of ever-married men was 75% in 1990, down from 85% in 1984, while for women, the proportion dropped to 83% from 88%.

In contrast, the proportion of older people who had ever been married was about the same in 1990 as it had been in 1984. Among people aged 40-49, the proportion was just over 90% for both men and women. Among 50-64-year-olds, the proportion of ever-married men was about 94%, while for women, the percentage rose to 96% from 94%.

Multiple unions rising

Increases have occurred in both the proportion of people who have been in more than one common-law union and the proportion who have been married more than once. However, growth was fastest for common-law relationships.

In 1990, 8% of men aged 18-64 and 7% of women in the same age group had lived in two or more common-law unions. This was up from fewer than 2% of both men and women in the early 1980s.

On the other hand, in 1990, nearly 7% of all Canadians aged 18-64 had been married more than once, up only slightly from 5% in 1984.

Why more common-law unions?

Some Canadians may choose a common-law union as a prelude or "trial run" to a legal marriage. Others may be in common-law unions for other social and economic reasons.

For some Canadians, the economic advantage of living common-law may be preferable to remaining single and living alone. By living common law, it is possible to share rent, utilities, and assets — an economic necessity for many Canadians. Common-law unions can potentially provide similar economic and social support to that traditionally found in legal marriage, but without the ultimate commitment "till death do you part". The legalities and expense involved with a failed common-law relationship cannot compare with the costs and legal complications of divorce.

Common-law unions can have some other economic advantages over marital unions.[2] Current transfer payment programs, and to a lesser extent tax programs, tend to provide proportionately greater benefits to people living together without being married and to lone parents than to married-couple families. As a result, the combined transfer payment benefits of two common-law partners may be greater than that received by comparable married partners. It may actually be financially beneficial not to marry.

In addition, many Canadians who have gone through the emotional trauma and economic hardship of divorce may prefer the alternative of a common-law union to another legal marriage.

[2] For a detailed discussion, see "Married and Unmarried Couples: The Tax Question" in the Summer 1991 issue of **Canadian Social Trends**.

Cam Stout *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

Two Decades of Change!

Women in Canada: A Statistical Report is the most extensive compendium on the changing roles, status and lifestyles of Canadian women today.

Compiling 20 years of demographic, economic, social, and cultural data, **Women in Canada** features 190 tables, 65 coloured charts, concise analysis, plus comparative statistics for men.

Whether you're planning social policies, developing marketing strategies, or studying women's issues, **Women in Canada** gives you the information you need — right at your fingertips!



Women in Canada, (Cat. no. 89-503 E) is $35 in Canada, and US$42 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6; or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, FAX your order to 1-613-951-1584. Or call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.

AIDS INTO THE 1990s

by Carol Strike



During the 1980s, the increase in AIDS' cases continued in Canada and around the world, despite efforts to increase awareness of high risk activities and to encourage behaviour changes.

As of August 6, 1991, 368,600 cases of AIDS had been reported to the World Health Organization. Of these cases, 48% were in the United States, followed by Uganda (6%), Brazil (5%), and France (4%). Only 1% of all reported cases of AIDS were in Canada. The recorded number of world AIDS' cases, however, underestimates the actual number, because some countries do not possess adequate diagnostic equipment and some do not have a centralized reporting system.

AIDS cases growing

By August 6, 1991, 5,246 Canadians had developed AIDS. Unlike countries where the proportion of women with AIDS is growing or cases are evenly distributed between men and women, in Canada, approximately 94% of all cases diagnosed each year are men.

Since 1983, the number of women with AIDS has grown from 13 to 261 cases. Just under one-third of these women were in each of the age groups 20-29 and 30-39; however, a large proportion (24%) were aged 50 and over. Of all men with AIDS, 44% were aged 30-39, 26% were in the 40-49 age group, and 19% were aged 20-29.

Since most women were of reproductive age when diagnosed, and more than four out of five pediatric cases of AIDS are the result of perinatal transmission (mother to unborn child), the growing number of women with AIDS may be used as a rough indicator of the future number of babies who will be born with AIDS. As of August 6, 1991, 62 cases of AIDS had been diagnosed among children under age 15: 53% were boys, the remainder girls.

The number of cases of AIDS in Canada doubled in the past 26 months. Given that the period from infection to the onset of symptoms is often at least six years, the number of cases among men, women, and children is likely to continue to increase. The Federal Centre for AIDS (FCA) has projected that by 1993, between 7,600 and 11,300 cases of AIDS will have been diagnosed.



AIDS transmission

Experts agree that the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is sexually transmitted. However, controversy exists about the role HIV plays in the transmission of AIDS. Individuals who contract HIV can carry the virus for prolonged periods of time before developing either the illnesses characteristic of AIDS or any symptoms of the infection. Epidemiologic studies find that approximately 50% of carriers will develop AIDS 10-11 years after infection.

The World Health Organization has estimated that as of 1990, there were six million people around the world with HIV infection. In Canada, the FCA has estimated that approximately 30,000 Canadians ever were HIV positive.

Once AIDS develops, it weakens the body's ability to fight disease, and people with AIDS become susceptible to life-threatening opportunistic infections and malignancies. The FCA estimates that the median length of time between diagnosis of AIDS and death is approximately 10 months, although wide variation exists among cases (0-42 months). Of all people diagnosed with AIDS in Canada, 60% have died. The case fatality rate was 65% for women, 63% for children, and 58% for men.

Risk factors

Among men, the most prevalent risk factor was homosexual or bisexual activity, the cause of 83% of all HIV infections in reported AIDS cases. Recipients of blood or blood products made up another 4% of all cases. A combination of homosexual or bisexual activity and injection drug use was identified in 4% of male cases, and injection drug use in 1% of cases. Other risk factors include heterosexual activity with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic, such as Haiti, and sexual contact with a person at risk. A person at risk is someone who has participated in high risk behaviour such as unprotected sexual intercourse or injection drug use.

Among women, heterosexual contact with a person at risk was the most frequently identified factor (31%), followed by heterosexual activity with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic (28%), and recipients of blood or blood products (25%). Injection drug use was identified as a factor in 7% of all female cases.

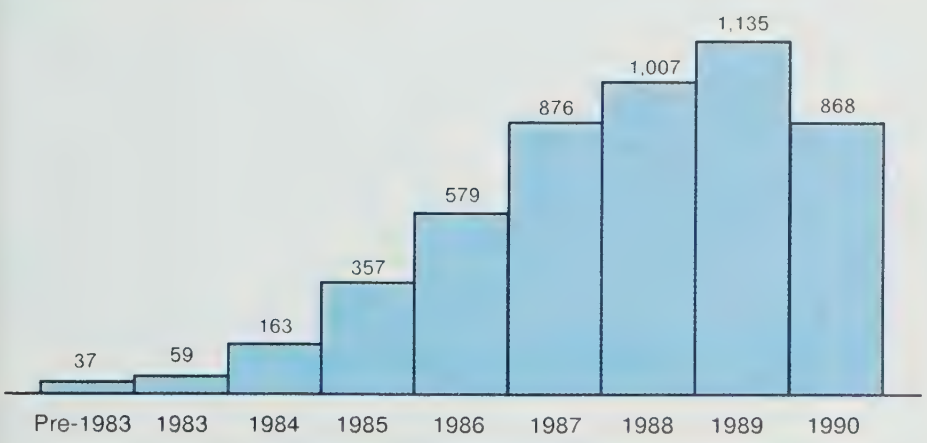
Most children, close to 82%, contracted AIDS through perinatal transmission, while the remainder were infected through blood transfusions or blood products.

Regional differences

British Columbia, Quebec, and Ontario have the highest rates of AIDS per 100,000 males: 59.8, 42.8, and 41.0, respectively. The rate for females was highest in Quebec (4.9 per 100,000 females), far

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

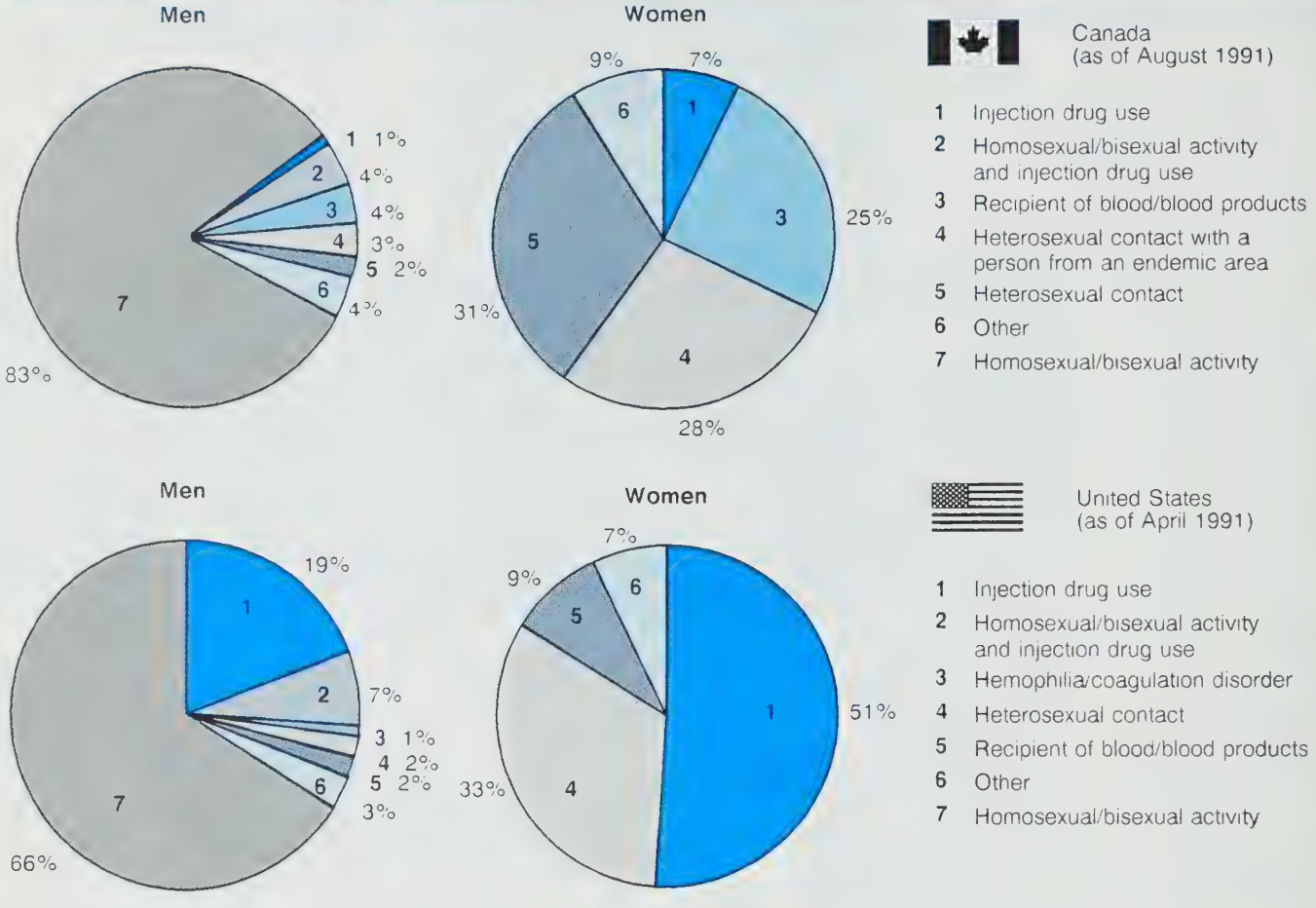
Cases of AIDS, 1983-1990[1]



[1] Considerable delay often exists between diagnosis and reporting cases. Therefore, annual totals, particularly for recent years, are likely to increase.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Federal Centre for AIDS.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Distribution of adult AIDS' cases, by sex and risk factor, Canada and United States



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Federal Centre for AIDS.

exceeding that of any other province. The second highest rate was found in Nova Scotia (1.8), followed by New Brunswick (1.6) and Ontario (1.3).

However, the distribution of cases by region and gender portrays a noticeably different picture. Most male cases of AIDS have been diagnosed in Ontario (40%), Quebec (29%), and British Columbia (19%). In contrast, 59% of women diagnosed with AIDS lived in Quebec, 22% in Ontario, and 6% in British Columbia. The disproportionate number of women with AIDS in Quebec appears to be linked to immigration. Specifically, immigrants to Quebec are more likely than immigrants to other parts of Canada to come from countries where AIDS and the HIV virus are equally common among men and women. In Quebec, the risk factor identified in 12% of all cases was heterosexual activity with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic, compared with less than 1% in all other parts of Canada.

AIDS in the U.S.

As of April 1991, 171,900 cases of AIDS were reported in the United States: 88% were men, 10% were women, and 2% were children. The prevalence of AIDS in the United States (62.0 cases per 100,000 people) vastly exceeds that of Canada (18.4 per 100,000 people). As well, the distribution of AIDS' cases by risk factor is different in the United States, with more cases attributable to injection drug use.

Among adult male cases, 66% contracted AIDS through homosexual or bisexual contact, 19% through injection drug use (1% in Canada), 7% through a combination of homosexual or bisexual contact and injection drug use, and 2% through heterosexual contact.

Injection drug use was the most common risk factor for women (51% compared with only 7% in Canada), followed by heterosexual contact with an injection drug user (20%), recipients of blood, blood products, or human tissues (9%), and heterosexual contact with a person with HIV of unspecified risk (4%).

The majority of cases in the United States are concentrated in five states: New York (21%), California (19%), Florida (9%), Texas (7%) and New Jersey (6%). However, the incidence of AIDS between April 1990 and March 1991 was higher in the District of Columbia than in any other state with 122.9 cases for every 100,000 people. New York state had the second highest rate (43.8 cases per 100,000 people), followed by Florida (36.7) and New Jersey (32.4).

Carol Strike *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*



KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS IN ALBERTA

by Allison L. McKinnon

From 1983 to May 6, 1991, a total of 325 cases of AIDS were reported in Alberta, representing 7% of all cases in Canada. Most cases were in Calgary (59%) and Edmonton (30%). High risk sexual activity between homosexual or bisexual males and their partners was linked to 85% of Alberta AIDS' cases.

Self-reported AIDS' risk

In 1990, a survey was conducted to determine knowledge of AIDS and associated risk factors among Albertans, the affect of this on their behaviour, and attitudes toward those with AIDS. According to the survey, Albertans who reported participating in high risk activities did not believe that they were placing themselves at greater risk of HIV infection and AIDS. In 1990, about 17% of Albertans participated in activities which placed them at high risk of infection, such as unprotected sexual contact or intravenous drug use. However, fewer than 2% of Albertans felt that their chance of getting AIDS was "high", while 5% thought their risk was "medium". The remainder of Albertans felt that their chance of getting AIDS was low or non-existent.

There are indications that sexual behaviour among adult Albertans has not changed appreciably in response to the potential threat of AIDS. For example, those at high risk were not more likely to use condoms during sexual intercourse.

Knowledge of people with AIDS

About 10% of Albertans personally knew or had known a person with AIDS. Consistent with the geographic profile of AIDS' cases, Calgary residents were more likely than other Albertans to report knowing a person with AIDS. Further, those who personally knew or who had known a person with AIDS were more likely to rate their chance of getting AIDS as "high" or "medium".

AIDS testing

Most Albertans (74%) supported the ethic of informed consent as a condition for AIDS testing. However, the majority of Albertans also stated that certain groups should be tested for HIV even if they had not given consent. Most people supported mandatory testing of blood and organ donors (92%), prostitutes (73%), injection drug users (71%), blood recipients (69%), health workers (63%), homosexual men (60%), bisexual men (59%), and hospital patients (58%). Just 36% supported mandatory testing of members of the military and airline pilots.

More than one-half (55%) of Albertans felt that employers should have the right to require an employee to be tested for HIV infection and AIDS. Support for mandatory testing of employees was greater in regions outside Edmonton and Calgary, and among people aged 55 and over, those who were married or widowed, those who had less than a high school education, and those who thought that their personal chances of getting AIDS were low.

A much lower proportion (10%) of Albertans expected to be tested for HIV sometime in the 12 months following the survey. People who were most likely to expect personal testing for HIV were more likely than others to be classified as "high" risk, to know or have known someone with AIDS, and to perceive their chances of getting AIDS as high. If Albertans were given assurance that test results would be kept confidential, 89% would agree to be tested for HIV if requested to do so, and 91% said they would want to know the results of their AIDS' tests.

Tolerance

Most Albertans had tolerant attitudes toward people with AIDS. Many people (62%) disagreed with the statement that "Most AIDS' victims deserve what they got." People who personally knew or had known someone with AIDS were the most tolerant. People who rated their chances of getting AIDS as "high" or "medium" were also less likely to blame the victim for getting the disease. Most people (73%) said that they would not take their children out of school to avoid contact with a classmate with AIDS. However, about 12% of respondents said that they would. Residents of Edmonton and those with lower levels of education were more likely than other Albertans to favour the withdrawal of their children from school to prevent contact with a child who has AIDS.

Access to health care

Most Albertans (82%) supported access to health care for people with AIDS, regardless of the financial costs to the public. Support was strongest among women, people age 40-54, people with higher levels of education, and those who knew or had known a person with AIDS.

About the survey

Information on AIDS' knowledge, attitudes and behaviours in Alberta was obtained from the 1990 Population Research Laboratory (University of Alberta) Alberta Survey. This was a multi-topic, multi-client, province-wide public opinion survey. The 1990 survey on health included a set of questions addressing HIV/AIDS-related issues along with other health related questions. A total of 1,245 adults aged 18 and over were interviewed in February and March of 1990.

Allison L. McKinnon *is a Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada doctoral fellow in the Department of Sociology, University of Alberta.*

CHANGING FACES: VISIBLE MINORITIES IN TORONTO



Since World War II, immigration to Toronto[1] has contributed to its population growth and changing ethnic composition. By 1986, one out of every three people living in Toronto had immigrated to Canada. As the source of immigrants shifted from Europe to the developing world, the representation of visible minorities in Toronto noticeably increased. Today, the citizens of Toronto are a unique group of people with disparate origins, appearances, languages, and cultural practices.

Immigration

Since the late 1960s, a much larger proportion of immigrants to Canada have been visible minorities. For example, only 6% of immigrants living in Toronto in 1986, who had come to Canada before 1967, were visible minorities. In contrast, visible minorities made up 51% of the immigrant population who arrived between 1967 and 1977, and 70% of those who had immigrated from 1983 to 1986.

As a result of these immigration patterns, visible minorities totalled one-third of all immigrants living in Toronto in 1986.

Population structure

More than one-third (37%) of Canada's visible minority population were concentrated in Toronto in 1986. Numbering over half a million (587,000), people in a visible minority made up 17% of the 3.4 million people living in Toronto. In contrast, just 6% of all Canadians were in a visible minority.

In Toronto, three-quarters of all people in a visible minority were in just three of the ten identified groups: Black (172,800), Chinese (133,600), or Indo-Pakistani (118,000).

Visible minority residents of Toronto are more concentrated than others in the younger ages. In 1986, 34% of those in a visible minority were aged 19 and under, while 26% of other residents were that age. There were also fewer seniors in the visible minority community. Five percent were aged 65 and older, compared with 10% of other residents.

The gender distribution among both visible minorities and the rest of the population is about the same. In 1986, females accounted for 52% of people in a visible minority, compared with 51% of the rest of the population. Among the three largest groups, the Black community had the highest proportion of females (55%), while one-half of the Chinese and Indo-Pakistani communities were females.

Family status

In Toronto, most people in a visible minority live with family members. In 1986, 92% lived with relatives, compared with 87% of the rest of the population. The remainder of both groups lived on their own or with people to whom they were not related. Not living with family members was particularly common

[1] Toronto refers to the Census Metropolitan Area which encompasses the core area of Toronto and its surroundings, including Brampton, Mississauga, and Scarborough.

among Blacks (10%), followed by Chinese (6%) and Indo-Pakistanis (4%).

The proportion of lone-parent families was similar for both the visible minority community (4%) and the rest of Toronto's population (3%), but differed among visible minority groups. For example, lone-parent families were more common among Blacks (9%) than among Indo-Pakistanis and Chinese (2% for each).

Language

In 1986, 40,000 people in a visible minority were unable to speak English or French. They represented about 38% of all people in Toronto, and 7% of Toronto's visible minority population, who could not speak at least one of Canada's official languages.

Employment Equity

Data for this article were obtained from the Employment Equity Program's "Profile on visible minorities and Aboriginal peoples". For more information on the Employment Equity Program, see the 1991 Autumn issue of **Canadian Social Trends**.

According to the Employment Equity definition, visible minorities include people, other than Aboriginals, who are non-white in colour or non-Caucasian in race. They are divided into 10 groups: Black, Chinese, Filipino, other Pacific Islanders, Indo-Pakistani, Japanese, Korean, Southeast Asian, West Asian and Arab, and Latin American.

The inability to speak English or French was most common within the Chinese community, where 17% spoke neither one of these languages. About 5% of the Indo-Pakistani community could not speak English or French, while almost everyone in the Black community could do so.

Education

In 1986, Toronto residents had a higher educational level than the Canadian population overall. At the same time, those in a visible minority tended to be better educated than other Toronto residents. For example, of people aged 15 and over in a visible minority, 16% had a university degree, compared with 13% of other Toronto adults. Among the three major groups, Chinese and Indo-Pakistanis were most likely to be university graduates (20% of adults in each of these communities). In contrast, only 6% of Blacks were university graduates.

People in a visible minority were also less likely than others in Toronto to have only an elementary school education (12% compared with 14%). Of the three largest visible minority groups, Chinese people were most likely to have less than a Grade 9 education (19%), followed by Indo-Pakistanis (11%) and Blacks (8%).

Labour force

In 1986, Toronto's labour force participation rate — the percentage of the population either working or unemployed — was higher than for Canada overall. Nonetheless, the rate was even higher for visible minorities (74.5%) than for the rest of Toronto's population (72.1%). This was because visible minority women were more likely to participate in the labour force (68.2%) than were other women (63.0%). Participation rates for visible minority and other men were about the same (82% for each group). Among the three major visible minority groups in Toronto, Indo-Pakistani men and Black women had the highest participation rates (85.7% and 73.9%, respectively). Chinese men and women both had the lowest participation rates (76.2% and 62.4%, respectively).

Of all Toronto residents, those in a visible minority were less likely than others to be self-employed. About 6% of the visible minority population aged 15 and over who worked in 1985 or 1986 were self-employed, compared with 8% of other residents. Of the three major visible minority groups, self-employment was most common among Chinese people (8.4% of workers). Of all Indo-Pakistani workers, 6.1% were self-employed, while this was the case for only 3.2% of Black workers.

Toronto's 1986 unemployment rate was about half of the national average of 10.3%. However, visible minority residents had higher unemployment rates than the rest of the population (7.0% compared with 5.2%). In 1986, the unemployment rate for visible minority men aged 15 and over was 6.6%, while for the rest of the adult male population, it was 4.5%. Visible minority women aged 15 and over had an unemployment rate of 7.5%, compared with 6.1% for other women. Among Toronto's three largest visible minority groups, unemployment rates ranged from a high of 8.0% for Blacks, to 7.1% for Indo-Pakistanis and a low of 5.9% for Chinese.

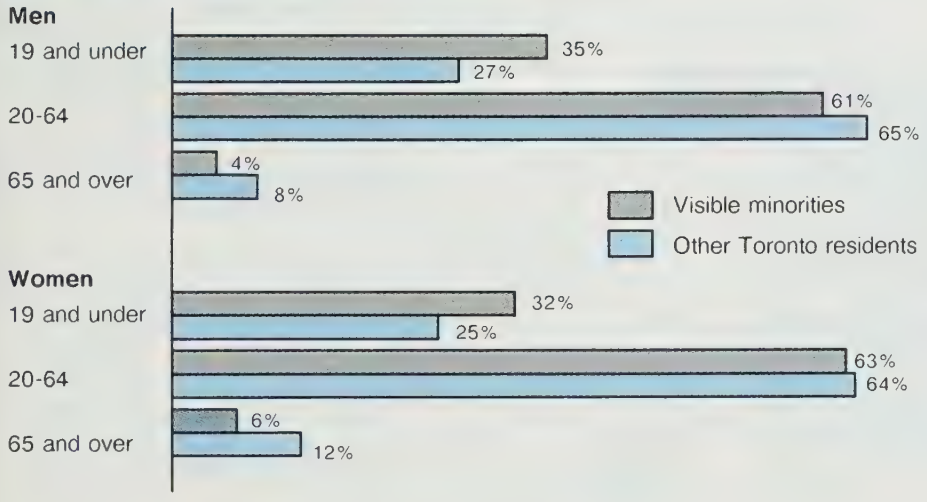
Occupation

Visible minority men in Toronto who worked in 1985 or 1986 were more concentrated in clerical, service, and unskilled manual occupations than were other men (40% compared with 30%). At the same time, a lower proportion were employed as managers (8% compared with 14%), and about the same proportion of each group were professionals (12%).

Major differences existed in the occupations held by Toronto's three largest visible minority groups. For example, only 6% of Black men were in professional occupations, compared with 20% of Chinese men and 14% of Indo-Pakistani men. Black men were also the least likely to be in managerial occupations (5%), while 9% of both Indo-Pakistani and Chinese men were employed in these occupations.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Age distribution of Toronto's[1] population, by sex, 1986



[1] Census Metropolitan Area.
Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Equity Program.



Black men, on the other hand, were concentrated in occupations such as skilled crafts and trades and manual work. Almost one-half of Black men (47%) were in these occupations, compared with 38% of Indo-Pakistani men and 26% of Chinese men.

In Toronto, 18% of visible minority women who worked in 1985 or 1986 were unskilled manual workers, while this was the case for 10% of other women. However, visible minority women were underrepresented in most other occupations. About 16% worked as managers or professionals in 1985 or 1986, compared with 23% of other women. Within the three largest groups in Toronto, Indo-Pakistani and Black women were least likely to be managers or professionals (15%), while Chinese women were most likely (19%).

Indo-Pakistani women were also the most likely to be employed in lower-paying occupations, such as unskilled manual work (25%), followed by 21% of Chinese women. Black women were least likely to be in these occupations (16%).

Income

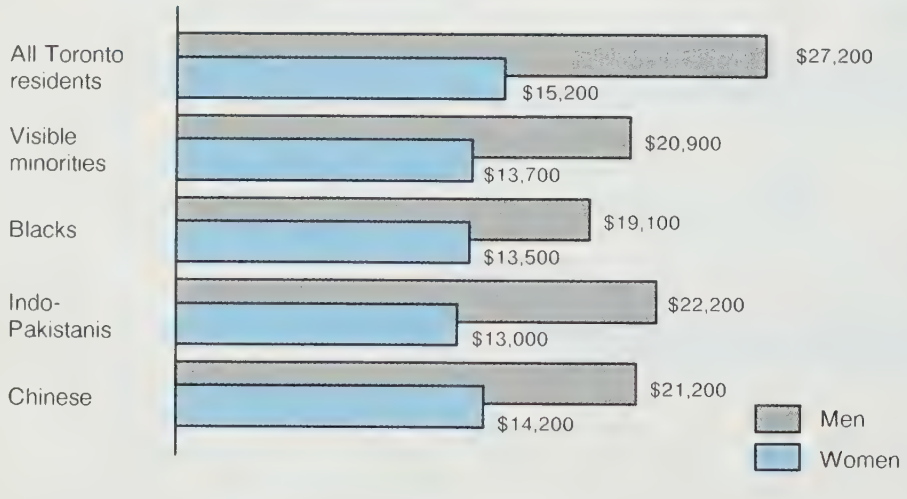
People in a visible minority tend to have lower incomes than others. In 1985, the average income of visible minority men was $20,900, compared with $27,200 for the rest of Toronto's male residents. Though the difference was not as great for women, those in a visible minority had an average income of $13,700, compared with $15,200 for other women.

Among Toronto's three largest visible minority groups, Indo-Pakistani men had the highest average income in 1985 ($22,200), compared with $21,200 for Chinese men and $19,100 for Black men. The average income of Chinese women ($14,200) was slightly higher than that of Black women ($13,500) and Indo-Pakistani women ($13,000).

In Toronto, people in a visible minority were more likely than others to live in low-income families. In 1986, 20% of visible minority people were in low-income families, compared with 12% of other residents. Of the three largest groups, 26% of Blacks were in low-income families, compared with 22% of Chinese and 15% of Indo-Pakistanis.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average income in Toronto, by sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Employment Equity Program.

Joanne Moreau *is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

- More information on this topic is available in "Visible Minorities in the Canadian Labour Force" by Michel G. Côté in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Vol. 3, No. 2, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES
Winter 1986 - Autumn 1991

POPULATION

1986 Census Highlights	Summer	1987
1986 Census Highlights: Aging of the Canadian Population	Winter	1987
A Profile of Employed Migrants between Atlantic Canada and Ontario	Spring	1987
An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint Dependency Ratios Implications of an Aging Society	Spring	1991
Calgary: A Statistical Profile	Winter	1987
Canada's Children	Summer	1991
Canada's Immigrant Population	Autumn	1989
Canada's Seniors	Autumn	1991
Changes in Fertility Among Canada's Linguistic Groups	Autumn	1988
Ethnic Origins of the Canadian Population	Summer	1989
Immigration during the 1980s	Spring	1991
Interregional Migration of the Canadian Population	Autumn	1987
Language in Canada	Spring	1989
Living the Fold: Declining Church Attendance	Autumn	1991
Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly" Population	Autumn	1988
Migration Between Atlantic Canada and Ontario, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
Profile of the Canadian Armed Forces	Winter	1989
Religious Affiliation in Canada	Autumn	1987
South Asians in Canada	Autumn	1989
The Demographic Future	Summer	1990
The Farm Community	Spring	1990
The Indo-Chinese in Canada	Autumn	1990
The Inner City in Transition	Spring	1990
The Inuit	Winter	1989
The Northern Population	Winter	1989
The Socio-demographic Conditions of Registered Indians	Winter	1986
Urban Canada	Winter	1987
Urbanization in Canada	Summer	1991
Winnipeg	Spring	1990

FAMILY

1986 Census Highlights: Changes in Living Arrangements	Spring	1989
1986 Census Highlights: Marital Status	Spring	1988
Caring for children	Autumn	1991
Common-law Unions: Nearly Half a Million in 1986	Autumn	1988
Decline in the Number of Children	Autumn	1990
Divorce Rates in Canada	Winter	1988
Female Lone Parenthood: The Duration of Episodes	Autumn	1988
Household Chores	Spring	1990
Marrying and Divorcing: A Status Report for Canada	Summer	1989
Tying the Knot: An Overview of Marriage Rates in Canada	Autumn	1987
Women Parenting Alone	Winter	1987
Young Adults Living in Their Parents' Home	Summer	1989

HOUSING

Co-operative Housing: A Third Tenure Form	Spring	1990
Forty Years of Social Housing in Toronto	Winter	1987
Home Improvement	Summer	1990
Home Ownership	Spring	1990
Mortgage Rates and the Housing Market	Winter	1986
People in Co-operative Housing	Autumn	1990
Shelter Costs	Spring	1990

LABOUR FORCE

1976 and 1982 Postsecondary Graduates: Selected: Highlights of Their Labour Force Experience	Autumn	1987
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1990	Spring	1991
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1989	Spring	1990
Annual Labour Force Estimates, 1946-1988	Spring	1989
Annual Review of Labour Force Trends	Summer	1987
Annual Update on Labour Force Trends	Summer	1988
Changes in Women's Occupations	Autumn	1990
Employment Equity	Autumn	1991
Employment of Disabled Canadians	Summer	1988
Employment of Humanities and Science Graduates	Summer	1989
Employment Patterns of Elderly Canadians	Autumn	1987
Increases in Long-term Unemployment	Spring	1987
Involuntary Part-time Employment in Canada, 1975-1985	Autumn	1987
Job Displacement	Spring	1988
Labour Force Trends: Canada and the United States	Autumn	1988
Labour Force Trends: Two Decades in Review	Autumn	1990
Maternity Leave	Autumn	1989
Regional Unemployment	Spring	1990
Secretaries	Summer	1990
Self-employment in Canada	Spring	1989
The Changing Industrial Mix of Employment, 1951-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline in Employment Among Men Aged 55-64, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
The Decline of Unpaid Family Work	Winter	1988
The Help-wanted Index	Spring	1988
The Service Sector in the 1980s	Spring	1989
Unemployment Rates for the Full-time and Part-time Labour Forces	Autumn	1987
Unionization in Canada	Spring	1988
Women Employed Outside the Home	Summer	1989
Women in Male-dominated Professions	Winter	1987
Women in Professional Occupations: Progress in the 1980s	Spring	1989
Work Injuries	Summer	1987

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF ARTICLES - Concluded
Winter 1986 - Autumn 1991

INCOME

Average Expenditure of Urban Canadians	Summer	1987
Children in Low-income Families	Winter	1986
Dual-earner Families: The New Norm	Spring	1989
Income of Canada's Seniors	Autumn	1988
Losing Ground: Wages of Young People, 1981-1986	Summer	1989
Low Income in Canada	Spring	1987
Married and Unmarried Couples: The Tax Question	Summer	1991
Retirement Income Programs in Canada	Winter	1986
The Decline of Real Family Income, 1980-1984	Winter	1986

EDUCATION

A Select Few: Canada's Ph.D. Population	Winter	1988
Changes in Educational Attainment	Summer	1990
Community Colleges: An Alternative to Universities	Winter	1986
Computer Literacy	Winter	1990
Educational Attainment of Linguistic Groups in Canada	Spring	1991
Foreign Students at Canadian Universities	Summer	1989
French Immersion	Autumn	1986
Low Educational Attainment in Canada, 1975-1985	Spring	1987
Part-time Adult Training	Winter	1988
Part-time University Enrolment	Summer	1987
Program Choices of Foreign University Students	Autumn	1989
Reading Skills	Winter	1990
University Enrolment in the 1980s	Winter	1989
Women in School Administration	Autumn	1990
Women Teaching at Canadian Universities	Summer	1988

HEALTH

Accidents	Summer	1990
AIDS in Canada	Summer	1988
Alcohol and Drug Use	Spring	1991
Cardiovascular Disease, Cancer and Life Expectancy	Winter	1988
Children with Disabilities	Winter	1990
Early Childhood Mortality, 1926-1986	Summer	1991
Hospital Care in the 21st Century	Winter	1989
Increased Life Expectancy, 1921-1981	Summer	1987
Indian Mortality	Winter	1989
Lifestyle Risks: Smoking and Drinking in Canada	Spring	1987
Profile of Canadians with Disabilities	Autumn	1990
Residential Care	Autumn	1989
Seniors with Disabilities	Spring	1991
Sleep Patterns	Winter	1990
Surgery Among Elderly People	Summer	1991
The Decline in Cardiovascular Disease Mortality	Autumn	1989
The Decline in Stroke Mortality	Autumn	1987
The Incidence of Sexually Transmitted Disease in Canada	Summer	1987
Therapeutic Abortion in Canada	Spring	1988
Trends in Cancer Since 1970	Summer	1988
Trends in Suicide	Winter	1988
What Canadians are Eating	Winter	1990

JUSTICE

Canada's Prison Population	Summer	1987
Compensation for Victims of Crime	Winter	1986
Drug Crimes	Spring	1991
Homicide	Summer	1990
Homicide in Canada	Winter	1987
Household Property Crimes	Spring	1990
Illegal Drug Use in Canada	Winter	1988
Impaired Driving Offences	Spring	1989
Legal Aid in Canada	Summer	1987
Perceptions of the Justice System	Winter	1990
Policing in Canada	Summer	1990
Violence in the Family Family Homicide Male Violence in the Home	Autumn	1989
Violent Crime	Summer	1988
Violent Victimization	Summer	1990
Wife Abuse	Spring	1988
Young Offenders	Autumn	1990

CULTURE

Canadians Travelling Abroad	Autumn	1991
Commuting Time	Winter	1990
Eating Out	Summer	1989
How Canadians Spend Their Day	Winter	1989
New Necessities: Popular Household Appliances	Autumn	1988
Passenger Traffic on Commercial Air Services	Spring	1988
Performing Arts	Winter	1990
Public Libraries	Winter	1989
Television Viewing	Autumn	1989
The Film Industry	Summer	1988
Time Use of the Elderly	Summer	1990
Travel Within Canada	Summer	1988

MISCELLANEOUS

Help Around the House: Support for Older Canadians	Autumn	1989
Loss of Prime Agricultural Land: The Example of Southern Ontario	Summer	1988
Lotteries in Canada	Autumn	1988
Private Transportation	Spring	1989
Public Opinion on Aboriginal Peoples' Issues in Canada	Winter	1988

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,602.6
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4
Immigration[1]	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,148
Emigration[1]	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	37,915
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572
- goods sector (000s)	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626
- services sector (000s)	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946
Total unemployment (000s)	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109
Unemployment rate (%)	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1
Part-time employment (%)	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4
Women's participation rate (%)	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	30,986	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	*
% of families with low income	13.8	13.9	12.6	11.8	11.3	10.5	9.6	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.6	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,083.9	5,149.3[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	831.9	865.3[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.2	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	43.8	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	*
- women	47.2	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	24.4	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	*
- women	24.8	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.7	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.9
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	692	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,013
- property	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,870
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.0
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1989 $000,000)	149,751.3	150,653.2	155,474.6	157,333.6	160,660.4	164,771.1	169,678.3	173,866.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.2	55.6	55.8	56.3	55.8	56.5	56.2	57.0
- as a % of GDP	27.3	26.2	26.1	26.0	25.4	24.8	24.9	25.9
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+4.7	+2.5	+0.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1	5.0	4.8
Urban housing starts	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

For enquiries and information call the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you:

Newfoundland and Labrador
St. John's, Newfoundland –
1-709-772-4073 or 1-800-563-4255

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island
Halifax, Nova Scotia – 1-902-426-5331 or
1-800-565-7192

Quebec
Montréal, Québec – 1-514-283-5725 or
1-800-361-2831

Southern Ontario
Toronto, Ontario – 1-416-973-6586 or
1-800-263-1136

Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba – 1-204-983-4020 or
1-800-542-3404

Saskatchewan
Regina, Saskatchewan – 1-306-780-5405 or
1-800-667-7164

Alberta & Northwest Territories
Edmonton, Alberta – 1-403-495-3027 or
1-800-282-3907
N.W.T. – Call collect 403-495-3028

Southern Alberta
Calgary, Alberta 1-403-292-6717 or
1-800-472-9708

British Columbia and Yukon
Vancouver, British Columbia –
1-604-666-3691 or
1-800-663-1551 (except Atlin)
Yukon and Atlin, British Columbia –
Zenith 08913

National Capital Region
1-613-951-8116

If You're On the Move . . .

. . . make sure we know where to find you by filling out the inserted reply card in the centre of the publication. If the reply card is no longer attached, please forward the necessary information (subscriber's name, old address, new address, telephone number and client reference number) to:

PUBLICATIONS SALES,
STATISTICS CANADA,
OTTAWA, ONTARIO,
K1A 0T6

We require six weeks advance notice to ensure uninterrupted delivery, so please keep us informed when you're on the move!

SELECTED REFERENCE PUBLICATIONS USED IN THIS ISSUE

Catalogue No.	Title	Price	
		In Canada ($ Cdn.)	Elsewhere
71-529	Labour Force Annual Averages	$64.00	United States: US $76.80 Other Countries: US $76.80
93-110	Schooling and Major Field of Study	$60.00	United States: US $70.00 Other Countries: US $70.00
93-111	Labour Force Activity	$46.00	United States: US $56.00 Other Countries: US $56.00
93-114	Total Income, Individuals	$30.00	United States: US $32.00 Other Countries: US $32.00
93-151	Occupational Trends, 1961-1986	$36.00	United States: US $38.00 Other Countries: US $38.00

To order publications, dial toll-free 1-800-267-6677

The National Child Care Survey

The National Child Care Survey (NCCS) was conducted in September and October 1988 as a supplement to the monthly Labour Force Survey, in all households with a least one child under age 13. In conjunction with Statistics Canada, the survey was designed and developed by the National Daycare Research Network, a consortium of researchers from four universities sponsored by Health and Welfare Canada. The objective was to provide information on the need for child care, patterns of use, expenses, parents' preferred choice of care, and the relationships between family structure, child care choices and work demands. A series of publications making full use of the NCCS data is planned for release by the Research Network over the next years. For a full description of the survey, contact Dr. Donna Lero, University of Guelph, at (519) 824-4120, ext. 3914.

9684



PICTURE PERFECT COVER TO COVER!

In a unique combination of beautiful photography and informative text, Canada: A Portrait *chronicles Canadian achievements in fields as diverse as economics, arts and culture. The latest facts and figures on our environment and people are complemented with over 200 full-colour photographs by award-winning Canadian photographers.*

A best-seller for over 50 years, *Canada: A Portrait* features easy-to-read text, a handsome full-colour cover and illustrative charts, graphs and a map of Canada.

It's perfect for

* the business sector as a corporate gift
* your home library or as a coffee table book
* students and teachers as a reference tool
* the media as a resource
* tourists — both at home and abroad
* the armchair traveller

In a convenient 6" × 9" format and 260 pages, the 53rd edition of *Canada: A Portrait* (Cat. no. 11-403E) is available in separate English and French editions.

For the first time *Canada: A Portrait* is available in a deluxe hardcover, priced at $33.00 in Canada, US $39.95 in the United States and US $45.95 in other countries; as well as our traditional softcover, priced at $25.00 in Canada, US $29.95 in the United States and US $34.95 in other countries.

To order, write Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster ordering, using your VISA or MasterCard, call toll-free ***1-800-267-6677*** *or fax your order to (613) 951-1584.*



INTERESTED IN ACQUIRING A CANADIAN ORIGINAL?

Then *Canadian Social Trends* is the acquisition for you. A first on the Canadian scene, this journal is claiming international attention from the people who need to know more about the social issues and trends of this country.

Drawing on a wealth of statistics culled from hundreds of documents, *Canadian Social Trends* looks at Canadian population dynamics, crime, education, social security, health, housing, and more.

For social policy analysts, for trendwatchers on the government or business scene, for educators and students, *Canadian Social Trends* provides the information for an improved discussion and analysis of Canadian social issues.

Published four times a year, *Canadian Social Trends* also features the latest social indicators, as well as information about new products and services available from Statistics Canada.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian Social Trends (cat. no. 11-008E) is $34 in Canada, US $40 in the United States and US $48 in other countries.

To order, write to Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 or contact the nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre listed in this publication.

For faster service, fax your order to 1-613-951-1584 or call toll free 1-800-267-6677 and use your VISA or MasterCard.